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THE ORGANISATION AND CURRICULA OF SCHOOLS

BY
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EDITOR'S PREFACE

THE *Modern Educator's Library* has been designed to give considered expositions of the best theory and practice in English education of to-day. It is planned to cover the principal problems of educational theory in general, of curriculum and organisation, of some unexhausted aspects of the history of education, and of special branches of applied education.

The Editor and his colleagues have had in view the needs of young teachers and of those training to be teachers, but since the school and the schoolmaster are not the sole factors in the educative process, it is hoped that educators in general (and which of us is not in some sense or other an educator?) as well as the professional schoolmaster may find in the series some help in understanding precept and practice in education of to-day and to-morrow. For we have borne in mind not only what is but what ought to be. To exhibit the educator's work as a vocation requiring the best possible preparation is the spirit in which these volumes have been written.

No artificial uniformity has been sought or imposed, and while the Editor is responsible for the series in general, the responsibility for the opinions expressed in each volume rests solely with its author.

ALBERT A. COCK.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE,
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AUTHOR'S PREFACE

THIS small book on "Organisation and Curricula" is intended to give points of view rather than numerous details. Our profession needs more than anything else the broad views and the ideals which will keep our work free from monotony and staleness. If we retain our interest and freshness, the details of routine and practice will be eagerly and easily acquired. In each division of the subject-matter, therefore, an attempt has been made to give the chief features, principles, and ideals, and to avoid a compilation of facts.

The new Education Act became law when the book was practically completed; it was thought advisable to place the chapter dealing with the Act at the end, with the idea that many of the matters dealt with in the preceding chapters would then show their most recent phases of development in a genetic order. This can, however, be only partially the case, since much of the book is concerned with matters which can never appear in any Act of Parliament.

No part of the treatment of the subject can claim originality except that concerned with the principle upon which the curriculum is framed. A fuller treatment is to be found in my book upon "Educational Values and Methods."

I should like, in conclusion, to thank all those teachers, head-masters, and Directors of Education who have taken so much trouble in providing me with information without which this book would have been poor indeed. A short paragraph of thanks is a very inadequate return for such services; if the book becomes of some value to students and to the general public, the recompense will, I know, be found sufficient.

W. G. S.

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THE ORGANISATION AND CURRICULA OF SCHOOLS

INTRODUCTION

THROUGHOUT Continental Western Europe the State has assumed control of practically all forms of educational activity. No school may be established, no person may teach, no subject may be taught, unless the permission of the State is explicitly given. Every school established belongs to a certain type, and a pupil's position in the school is regarded as indicating approximately his attainments and degree of general efficiency. Similarly, every teacher belongs to a certain species, determined by his diplomas and experience, and can change his status only by modes of procedure recognised by the State. Continental systems of education are remarkable for the thoroughness of their organisation, every detail being thought out and worked out with the greatest care, the whole plan presenting a mosaic in which the design is perfectly clear and endlessly repeated.

In Great Britain things are different. Partly owing to national conservatism and a partiality for compromise and middle courses, partly owing to national dislike of interference and love of freedom, public education is only partially organised, and of those parts which are organised some are under one authority and others under other controlling powers. Thus the Board of Education supervises the main body of schools; but the Home Secretary, the Local Government Board, the Board of Agriculture, the War Office, and the Admiralty have each their own special

jurisdiction over smaller groups. More important than the existence of multiple central authorities, however, is the fact that education is only partially in the hands of the State. The State might roughly express its attitude thus: "Do as you please so long as you ask for no money." To-day hundreds of schools exist of which the State takes no official cognisance, and many others of which it has no knowledge, official or otherwise. Great Britain has schools of almost every conceivable type, and schools which it would be difficult to fit into any known system of classification except as good, harmless but useless, or harmful schools. Mr. Wells's account of them in "Joan and Peter" is, on the whole, a true one. One of the smallest disadvantages arising out of such conditions is the inability even to hazard a guess as to the attainments of a boy or girl from a knowledge of his or her class or form. Teachers, too, form a heterogeneous collection—some recognised, others unrecognised by the State; some educated, others half-educated; some trained, others untrained in their professional work; some receiving salaries on which it is possible to live, others receiving a mere pittance.

This absence of differentiation, of classification, and of organisation makes it extremely difficult for a foreigner, and even for an Englishman, to form a clear idea of the system, in so far as there may be said to be one, which, in spite of its incoherency, has done and is doing so much for our country. To obtain any adequate view of the whole, a prolonged study would be needed; to get an idea of the main groupings it is necessary to grasp the meaning of a few important facts by tracing the main features of the educational system of to-day in the course of its more recent developments.

Until 1870, education, both elementary and secondary, was in the hands of any who chose to make it their business, and the State was not one of these. Private persons

undertook it for a livelihood or from a belief that they had a mission; trustees of endowments carried on schools because they were responsible for the use of the endowments; philanthropic societies carried on similar work with one eye upon efficiency and the other upon religious or theological training. The State granted financial aid to Elementary Schools on condition that they attained a certain degree of efficiency, demonstrated by the results of an annual examination conducted by State inspectors.

In 1870 the State took up the problem of universal Primary Education, and by the Act of that year sought to make good the existing deficiencies. By the Elementary Education Act of 1870 the whole country was divided into School Board areas, in each of which the School Boards were made the authorities for Elementary Education. The ratepayers of the district elected the members of the School Boards for their special educational purpose (*ad hoc*), and the School Boards were empowered to levy an education rate up to threepence in the pound. Board Schools, at first intended merely to supplement the supply of denominational schools, began rapidly to supplant them, and the permission to levy a rate soon placed the Church Schools at a disadvantage. The Board Schools in large areas were able to expend more money upon building materials and teachers' salaries, and hence to do their work more efficiently. On the other hand, many Board School areas were so small or so poor as to preclude the possibility of providing good buildings and good teaching. Moreover, many members of the smaller School Boards were of necessity persons who were ignorant of educational matters, and cared little for the education of the masses. It is therefore a matter for national congratulation that secondary education was left outside such an organisation.

The Act of 1902, so far as Elementary Education was concerned, dealt with two problems which since 1870 had

become more and more acute—the comparative inefficiency of the Denominational Schools, owing to their inability to draw upon the rates, and the equally great inefficiency of many Board Schools, owing to lack of money and inexpert organisation, the result of having established such small administrative areas.

Moreover, the unorganised and uncontrolled state of Secondary Education had long troubled the minds of all who thought at all upon national matters, and the growing competition between civilised nations for commercial and industrial supremacy now forced the subject to the front. The Act of 1902 did something to solve all these problems by abolishing the School Boards and giving to the newly-set-up County and Borough Councils the control of both Elementary and Secondary Education.

For the first time in our history it became possible to define the limits of each of the two types of education, and to attain some sort of unity in educational aims and efforts. Elementary Denominational Schools—called non-provided schools because the buildings were not provided by the Education Authority, and continued to be the property of the denomination—passed also under the direct control of the Local Authority. Many Secondary Schools, to obtain Government grants, had already placed themselves under State supervision, and now, in order to obtain financial assistance from the Local Education Authority, offered free places to a considerable number of Elementary School children. Various Local Education Authorities, encouraged by the offer of further State grants, began to build Secondary Schools of their own. Much was thus done by the Act to bring Secondary Education under the regulating influence of the Local Education Authority, but, none the less, many schools giving Secondary Education—Private and Boarding and Public Schools—which felt themselves still able to pay their way without State or

municipal assistance, remained free of State inspection and entirely independent of local control. Nevertheless, the Acts of 1870 and 1902 must be regarded as two great landmarks of English educational progress—the one making efficient education possible for the masses of the people, the other opening up possibilities of higher education to all capable of profiting by it—possibilities which are now being even more adequately realised.

The Act of 1918, the broad outlines of which are given in the last chapter of this book, indicates the distance educational thought has traversed since 1870 and 1902. The teaching profession has come to be recognised as an expert calling, demanding the highest scientific knowledge, and the public has shown increasing interest in educational activities of every kind. The growth of public appreciation of the value of education before and especially during the war has made it possible to frame and pass an Act so progressive—an Act which in almost every section asserts the right of the State to organise and control the great educational activities of the country for the general good.

CHAPTER I

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

For many centuries Elementary Education was undertaken by religious bodies and private individuals whose humble names have frequently been left unrecorded.[1] It was carried on in the early part of the eighteenth century by various organisations, among which the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge can claim a noble pre-eminence; in the latter part of the century, when the advent of machinery began to revolutionise the industries of the country and to drive the people into the towns, it succeeded, in the hands of such pioneers as Joseph Lancaster and Dr. Bell, in even catching the attention of royalty. The British Schools, founded by the British and Foreign Schools Society—Lancaster's legacy to his country—the National Schools, founded by Dr. Bell, and the National Society of the Church of England; the Roman Catholic Day-Schools, the Congregational and Wesleyan Schools, and the Schools of the Ragged School Union, provided the great bulk of Elementary Education until the year 1870. Since 1833 the State had divided annually a gradually increasing sum of money between the societies engaged in this voluntary work. In 1853 a Capitation Grant was established, which consisted in an allowance to Elementary Schools for each scholar who made sufficient attendances. The year of the appearance of Spencer's work on "Education," 1861, witnessed also the infamous arrangements, not abolished until 1897, of "payment by results," which did all the harm anticipated by the clear-sighted. Since the establishment in 1870 of School

[1] See Adamson: "Short History of Education."

Boards, the intervention of the State has been constantly increasing, and has been on the whole productive of great good. Elementary Education was made free in 1891, and by the Voluntary Schools Act and the Necessitous Board Schools Act of 1897 grants were increased where they were most needed.

In 1900 the Education Department was reconstructed as the Board of Education, and a Consultative Committee was formed to advise the Board and to frame the regulations for a Register of Teachers. Since the great Act of 1902, which brought Elementary and Secondary Education under one control, the State has been increasingly and beneficially active in promoting the physical and intellectual welfare of Elementary School children. In the Education (Provision of Meals) Acts of 1906 and 1914, the Local Education Authority was empowered to spend money from the rates in providing meals for necessitous children. Provision was made in 1909 for the medical treatment of school-children, and in 1913 an Act was passed which made it compulsory for Local Education Authorities to make adequate provision for the mentally deficient.[1]

The Act of 1902 fixed the framework of central and local control. The three directing and controlling agencies—namely, the Board of Education, the Local Education Authority, and the School Managers—represent, or were intended to represent, different kinds and degrees of supervision: the first remote and general, the second local and general, and the third particular and intimate. The Local Education Authority has, however, by the force of circumstances, extended its functions to such an extent that the Board of Education tends to become more and more an advisory body only.

The Central Government is represented by the Board of

[1] See for full account Birchenough's "History of Elementary Education."

Education. It supervises Elementary and Higher Education, administers Parliamentary grants, draws up annual codes, memoranda, and suggestions, and, by means of a large body of inspectors, sees that a degree of uniformity and efficiency is maintained. It has no control over the Universities, but financially assists most of them.

The Local Education Authorities are no longer *ad hoc* bodies. They are the County, County Borough, Non-County Borough, and Urban District Councils, elected by the ratepayers to administrate all local business. These Councils elect an Education Committee, which co-opts other members (at least one woman[1]) having a knowledge of educational matters.

The County Council has control over Elementary Education throughout the county, except in its County Boroughs, Non-County Boroughs with over 10,000, and its Urban Districts with over 20,000 inhabitants. It also controls Secondary Education throughout the county, except in the case of its County Boroughs.[2]

The managers were intended to fulfil something like parental functions.

The County Council and County Borough Authorities must appoint managers to all Provided Schools. The smaller Boroughs and Urban Districts need not do so. In the case of Non-Provided Schools everywhere the appointment of managers is again compulsory, one-third of these being selected by the Local Education Authority. While government by the Central and Local Authorities is characterised necessarily to a great degree by its hard, machine-like qualities, the relation between school and managers is bound to be of a more personal and intimate order; but to a great degree managers have been stripped of their powers

[1] The London County Council Education Committee now has eight women members out of a total of thirty-eight elected members of the Council, and six women out of a total of twelve co-opted members.

[2] For details see Education Act, 1902.

and functions, and in the Provided Schools at any rate are scarcely anything more than interested and occasionally useful visitors.

In the Secondary Schools provided by the Local Authority there is no rule for the appointment of managers. In schools not so provided, the governors exist to see that the work is carried out in accordance with the provisions of the founders.

The term "primary" used with regard to education admits of several meanings. It is sometimes employed to cover the same idea as the term "elementary," with distinct reference to the education which is provided free by the State or for which school fees may not exceed 9d. per week. Sometimes it designates education of an elementary kind in which the rudiments of knowledge and skill are given, and thus is made to cover the instruction provided for all children below the age of eleven or twelve. The latter meaning is certainly the more legitimate and logical, and Educational Authorities are tending more and more to use the term "primary" in this sense. Logically the word "elementary" should cover the same meaning, but the English nation is seldom consciously logical, and now arbitrarily differentiates the two terms. Thus Primary Education is coming to mean all instruction of a rudimentary kind, whether given in what are called Elementary, or Boarding, or Preparatory, or Secondary Schools; Elementary Education, on the other hand, is held to designate the teaching received in the free schools of the country.

As defined by the Central Authority, an Elementary School is a school "at which Elementary Education is the principal part of the education there given," but the term does not include any school "at which the ordinary payments in respect of instruction from each scholar exceed

9d. a week." "A Public Elementary School is a school which satisfies certain further requirements imposed by Section 7 of the Act—namely, that certain conditions as to attendance at religious observance and instruction shall be observed, that the school shall be open to inspection, and that it shall be conducted in accordance with the conditions required to be fulfilled by an Elementary School in order to obtain an annual Parliamentary grant."

The power to provide instruction in a Public Elementary School is limited (except by consent of the Board of Education) to the provision of instruction for scholars who, at the close of the school year, will not be more than sixteen years of age. This statutory limit of age is the same for Higher Elementary Schools as for Ordinary Public Elementary Schools. On the other hand, in the case of certified schools for blind, deaf, mentally defective, physically defective, or epileptic children, not only the power to provide instruction, but the period of compulsory attendance, is extended to the completion by the scholars of their sixteenth year of age, whether this occurs in the course of the school year or at the end of it.

The term "Ordinary Public Elementary School" is used to include all schools recognised under the Code except Higher Elementary Schools, and the latter are defined as Public Elementary Schools, which have for their object the development of the education given in Ordinary Elementary Schools, and the provision of special instruction bearing on the future occupations of the scholars.[1] The Ordinary Elementary Schools deal, therefore, with the great masses of the children, and those who pass their boyhood or girlhood up to the age of fourteen in them may be taken as the average, the normal.

[1] The quotations defining the various types of Elementary Schools are taken from "Statistics of Public Education in England and Wales for 1913-14," Explanatory Notes.

A certain proportion of Elementary School children are, however, abnormal, being either below or above the average in intellectual power and attainments. The State has recognised this somewhat tardily, and now demands that the Local Education Authorities should make adequate provision for these types of pupils. It is only fair to say that private and local educational forethought and initiative had already done a great deal in this direction.

The national importance of a provision for Higher Elementary Education is slowly making itself felt. The continued prosperity of the country depends upon it, and it is on this ground that the appeal has been most successfully urged. The necessity of training skilled, intelligent, and thoughtful workmen is gradually dawning on the minds of the English people; the shadow of the foreign competitor dogging their footsteps all over the world has at last alarmed them. National material prosperity is a great stake, but not the highest. True prosperity, national health—physical, intellectual, and moral—depends upon the degree to which the developing needs and powers of our children are responded to. A brilliant child must have opportunity for a full education—"from the Elementary School to the University." A less brilliant child will need opportunity too, but his education need not be carried to the University. According to talent and power of using educational opportunity, so should educational opportunity be offered. Only in recent years has this idea begun to penetrate the minds of the British public.[1]

We still have to clear our minds of errors due to custom and prejudice. Talent expresses itself in many forms.

[1] There is a growing advocacy of Secondary Education for all. The Labour Party is opposed to any tendency to maintain a barrier between the working and the middle classes; they claim equal privileges for all. Outside the ranks of Labour, too, the same opinion is gaining adherents. It is, for example, a favourite theme of those responsible for *The Times* Educational Supplement.

There is too great readiness to look for it only in the form of book knowledge, particularly literary and linguistic. Manual talent of different types is probably not receiving sufficient recognition or opportunity. It is true that nearly all real success in skilled work demands a power of using books, but in training the power to use books it is vital that we should not in the process suppress or destroy the children's real power. It is certain that, given free opportunity, some will show talent in one direction and some in another; hence the type of education we are offering to the clever of all sorts is probably too distinctly bookish.

We have, too, to guard against another misconception—the idea that manual work is less honourable than other work; that work by which the hand becomes hard and dirty, in which it is necessary to wear aprons, is more menial than other work. It must be realised and constantly remembered that to follow out one's own bent, to give free play to the best powers one possesses, is the happiest, most honourable existence that can be led, and the one which is most useful to the State.

Schools of many types must therefore be provided. At present we have fairly distinct kinds for Elementary School children who have shown a certain degree of ability —the Higher Grade, the Higher Elementary, the Central, and the Trade School.

The Higher Grade School is the result of the initiative of Local Educational Authorities (School Boards), who, realising the importance of more advanced education for those who could profit by it, were willing to run the risk of offending the ratepayers by spending larger sums in the provision of means. Children of ability were given the opportunity of spending the last two or three years of their Primary School life in a higher type of institution, among companions intellectually more on a level with themselves,

receiving more advanced instruction in some subjects and initiation into one modern language. By this means they frequently prepared themselves for entrance into a Technical or Trade School. Unfortunately, the new departure was not always properly organised. It is now clear that a definite number of Ordinary Schools should have been made to feed each Higher Grade School, and that only those children should have been admitted who were capable of profiting by the teaching, and of these only those whose parents would promise to keep their children at the school for a definite time in order that the full course might be followed. Instead of adopting this line, the School Board allowed head-teachers to admit children somewhat indiscriminately, little care being taken to see even that they had reached some standard of attainment. Sometimes the top classes of an Ordinary School were constituted Higher Grade, and were taught in the same building; the parents of children in the lower classes claimed that their children, fitted or not, should remain in the same school, and should not be removed to another school when the dividing-line was reached. The claim was difficult to resist, especially as the teachers of surrounding schools which should have been "contributory," and to whom the innovation was strange, objected to losing their best pupils just at a moment when it looked as if the fruits of their training were about to be realised. Numbers of Higher Grade Schools were therefore doing no more advanced work than the Ordinary Schools, or were giving more advanced instruction to pupils unable to benefit by it. A waste of energy and public money resulted. In some parts of the country the early difficulties have now been overcome and excellent work is being done.

The Higher Elementary School was the creation of the Central Authority, and doubtless arose as the result of a

study of the merits and faults of the Higher Grade School. The latter received no additional Government grants to cover the increased expense of buildings, apparatus, laboratories, and teachers, and it was therefore free to work out its own destiny so long as it conformed to the regulations for the Ordinary Elementary Schools. In the case of the Higher Elementary School, however, the Board of Education made higher grants on condition that its rules with regard to admission, equipment, and curriculum were obeyed. The Board, until 1919, recognised and paid special grants to those Public Elementary Schools which had for their object "the development of the education given in the Ordinary Public Elementary Schools, and the provision of special instruction bearing on the future occupation of the scholars."

These schools must be organised to provide a three years' course of instruction, and in certain circumstances a fourth year may be provided for scholars qualified to profit by it. Admission is limited to pupils who are not less than twelve years of age, and who have also been for at least two years under instruction in a Public Elementary School. As a rule, the newly-admitted scholar must begin with the "first year" of the course.

The attempt to form a type of school intermediate between Elementary and Secondary has not been very successful. Some Local Authorities considered that the curriculum imposed by the Board was not sufficiently practical, and did not adequately prepare for the future life of the pupils; that manual work was not adequately represented in the curriculum; and, in general, that their own freedom of direction and control was curtailed to an unnecessary extent by the conditions laid down for the earning of the grant.

It has also been found very difficult to induce parents to keep their children in such schools until they have finished

the whole course, partly because of the wage-earning capacity of the boy or girl, and doubtless partly because their parents are sceptical as to the value of the education given in the Higher Elementary Schools.

Owing to these difficulties, comparatively few schools of this type have been established. Local Education Authorities have preferred to avoid the difficulties and to retain their freedom by focussing their efforts on the Higher Grade Schools and on other types for which they have received no additional grants. With the discontinuance of the Government grant and the advent of compulsory continuation schools, the downfall of the Higher Elementary Schools seems imminent.

An attempt has been made by the London Education Authority to establish a type of school resembling in some points the Higher Grade and Higher Elementary Schools, and yet differing from both. These are the so-called Central Schools.[1] They are intended to provide what the other two types have been unable to provide—viz., instruction which is emphatically practical, and which combines general education with a preparation for industrial and commercial life. For this purpose the schools fall into two types—those with an industrial and those with a commercial bias. Some are purely industrial or purely commercial; others combine both types. Sometimes the school is confined to one sex; sometimes the one school contains classes of boys and classes of girls; sometimes boys and girls work in the same class; in the latter cases the school has only one bias, not both. The pupils are selected from Ordinary Elementary Schools at about eleven years of age, partly on the results of the Junior County Scholarship examination, and partly on the pupils' records

[1] The present number of L.C.C. Central Schools is fifty. Other sixty departments are to be established.

of work and conduct. A very few small maintenance grants are also made.

The State does not yet recognise the Central School or the Higher Grade School as worthy of additional grants, although the expenses are very much greater than in the Ordinary Elementary School. There is little doubt that, owing to considerable diversity in the admission test, the pupils are on very different levels of attainment. There is also no statutory power to compel parents to keep their children at the school until the whole four years' course is completed. A rule exists which makes forty the maximum number of children in a class, but this rule is not rigidly adhered to. Moreover, the inherent difficulty of the decision as to whether a boy should be placed in the industrial or the commercial section is insuperable; at eleven years of age the child is too young to show permanent tendencies. A sensible course which might be adopted is to make the first two years' course common to both sections, and at thirteen to make the decision.

It would seem that there is a future for the Central School, but its usefulness as an important factor in national education can never be fully realised until its position in the system of State education has been more closely studied and defined. Such study and definition may result in transforming it into a branch of Secondary Education.

Various Local Authorities have instituted Trade Schools for fee-paying and free scholars, who are there prepared to take up apprenticeships or employment in skilled trades. As a rule the transfer from the Ordinary to the Trade School takes place between the ages of thirteen and fourteen. In London in the year 1918 there were 260 scholarships for boys and 320 for girls tenable at such schools over

a period of two and sometimes three years.[1] Unfortunately, many possible entrants, more suited for a life of manual occupation, have, several years earlier, been absorbed into Secondary and Higher Elementary Schools, where their manual talents have necessarily run to waste and their less pronounced academic abilities been unnaturally forced.

Throughout the country the brighter Elementary School children can, as we have seen, obtain instruction of a more advanced kind. At the same time special provision is made for children who for one reason or another are handicapped in varying degrees in the process of adapting themselves to their environment. Only in comparatively recent years has it been recognised that it is worth while for the sake of the community itself that such children should receive special training; that unless such children are trained, some forms of abnormality lead to crime, and that with training a surprising amount of usefulness to society may be obtained. These abnormal children are classified into groups which require separate treatment and a special training; the blind, the deaf, the physically defective, the

[1] The trades taught to boys were:

1. Carriage and motor body building.
2. Professional cookery.
3. Professional waiting.
4. Building, carpentry, masonry, bricklaying, plumbing, etc.
5. Furniture and cabinet making.
6. Wood-carving.
7. Printing and bookbinding.
8. Silversmithing, jewellery, and engraving.
9. Engineering and allied trades.
10. Photo-engraving and photo-process work.

The trades taught to girls were:

1. Hairdressing.
2. Photography.
3. Needle trades—dressmaking, trade embroidery, ladies' tailoring, upholstery, millinery, corset and lingerie making.
4. Domestic trades—domestic service cookery, cookery, and laundry work, training for housemaids or parlourmaids.

epileptic, and the mentally defective are specifically treated, and special schools are organised to deal with each type. Many Local Education Authorities make use for such purposes of private and other institutions, instead of building and equipping their own schools.

By far the largest number of these defective children are to be found in the schools for the mentally deficient, many of these cases, however, being the result of quite temporary causes. Such pupils are periodically examined by doctors or psychologists, and as soon as sufficient improvement has been observed sent back to the Ordinary School. By humane and scientific treatment many such children have been saved from progressive mental deterioration, and have become a support instead of a burden to the State. In Mannheim the experiment has been successfully tried of dividing the school into three departments—one for normal, one for backward, and one for mentally deficient pupils—thus rendering transfer more easy, making it possible to follow up the history of each abnormal child, and, in general, to temper the wind constantly to the shorn lamb.

Open-air schools have been established for children suffering from general physical debility. In such schools most of the work is done out of doors, lessons requiring the use of desks being taken under shelter just sufficient to protect against extremes of heat and cold. The so-called classrooms are little more than sheds, fully open on one and partially open on the other three sides. Great use is made of the garden, and, in general, the education given is less bookish and more calculated to encourage bodily activity than in the ordinary schools. The results of school life spent entirely in the open air have been sufficiently remarkable to warrant a further development of this idea. At present there are only two such schools in London, and very few indeed elsewhere.

The idea of teaching in the open air has taken root, and many teachers are trying under obvious disadvantages to apply the same idea to the benefit of normally healthy children. In some Ordinary Schools classes take turns in doing their work in the playgrounds or in neighbouring parks. In Birmingham open-air classrooms, placed in the playgrounds, have been erected at an average cost of £55. In some places these shelters have been constructed by class and teacher at a still smaller cost.

The same desire to secure continuous physical and mental development has led to the institution of Vacation Schools, where the children of poor parents are healthily occupied during the summer holidays in pleasurable manual work, Nature-study, and games.

CHAPTER II

HIGHER EDUCATION

Secondary Schools

The growth of industry and commerce during the last 150 years has naturally affected the Secondary Schools, has caused great modifications in their curricula, and has given rise to great varieties in types of schools. Not yet, however, has this influence been great enough to produce a complete system. It would be easy in a few words to outline the German system of Secondary Schools—the Gymnasium or Classical, the Realgymnasium or Semi-Classical, and the Oberrealschule or Modern School, with either a six or a nine years' course. An account of the French system of Secondary Schools would be almost as straightforward—the State-supported Lycée and the State and Commune supported Collège, both linking Primary and Preparatory Education with Secondary, and both providing alternative courses of a classical, semi-classical, linguistic (modern languages), and scientific nature.

It is not easy to make clear the various types of Secondary Schools possessed by this country. No Government has yet had sufficient popular support to warrant a complete overhauling of the Secondary and semi-Secondary institutions. Vested interests, general ignorance of the necessity for system, popular indifference and opposition, have prevented any thoroughgoing reform.

Uniformity of any real or valuable kind is the one thing not to be found. Some educationists assert that it is the one thing which never ought to be found. They glory in

the variety and irregularity of our Secondary system. Others feel the necessity for some degree of organisation, but see in State interference and control the infliction of a tyranny, the crushing of all individual initiative, and the mechanising of all educational effort. In every belief there is an element of truth, and organisation does risk these dreaded dangers. At present Secondary Education maintains to a very large degree its freedom and variety of types, and the English parent, in deciding upon a school for his child, suffers acutely from an *embarras des richesses.*

This is not to say that progress has not been considerable. On the contrary, not only is the confusion less to-day than hitherto, but it is possible to see glimmerings of a future "system." It was not, however, until past the middle of the nineteenth century that the State began to wake up from its indifference with regard to Higher Education.

The statutes under which many great schools were being governed hampered and often entirely prevented progressive development. These statutes, dating often from Tudor times, prescribed curricula and an internal organisation ill-fitted to modern needs. Hence in 1861 Lord Clarendon's Commission was appointed to enquire into the conditions under which the leading Public Schools were working. This investigation paved the way for the Public Schools Act of 1868, by which seven of the schools under investigation received new governors and new statutes. Lord Taunton's Commission had already in 1864 begun its laborious enquiry into the state of the Endowed Schools, and had later presented a Report of twenty volumes. The Report revealed many defects and deficiencies in these schools, among the chief being the antiquated schemes under which many schools were being conducted and the lack of anything in the nature of Secondary Education for

girls. The enquiry was productive of good in both these directions. In 1869 the Endowed Schools Act was passed, which soon brought about improvement in the schemes under which many schools had hitherto been forced to work, and made development along modern lines possible. Another effect of immense importance was the impetus given to Secondary Education for girls—a development long deferred, but vital to a democratic State. Lord Taunton's Commission continued its labours until 1874, arranging schemes for 235 schools, and finally handed its powers over to the Charity Commissioners, who exercised them until 1902.

The Victorian era saw also a great extension of Public School Education and an immense increase in the number of Public Boarding-Schools. Among these may be mentioned Marlborough and Haileybury as types of the almost purely Boarding-School; Clifton and Manchester as types of the partly boarding. Most of them were non-sectarian; Lancing, however, may be regarded as chiefly Anglican and Mill Hill as Dissenting in character.

If the schools investigated by Lord Clarendon's Commission be excluded, the number of Boarding-Schools properly called "Public Schools" was in 1909 about forty, and the number has remained practically constant.[1] The Public School is defined by the sponsors of the figure just quoted as one which draws its pupils from all over the country, and possesses a more than local reputation. The same authorities exclude, however, a number of schools capable of answering to these demands, because of a lack of social status. Hence the perplexed parent will still find himself occasionally in a quandary in selecting a school which is within his means, and which will at the same time confer upon his offspring the social advan-

[1] Norwood and Hope, "Higher Education of Boys in England," p. 28.

tages and status involved in a Public School Education. Of the forty Public Schools, some are Delocalised Grammar Schools like Repton, Uppingham, and Tonbridge; others are Proprietary Schools founded by high-minded individuals or societies, and not carried on for purposes of profit, such as those mentioned in the preceding paragraph.

Among the Public Day-Schools are St. Paul's, Merchant Taylors', Dulwich College, City of London School, King's College School, University College School, Manchester Grammar School, King Edward's School, Birmingham, Bristol and Bradford Grammar Schools. During the last four or five decades the numbers of pupils attending these schools have doubled, and in some cases trebled.

The Preparatory School is also the product of the Mid-Victorian period. While the Public School has maintained its Secondary School characteristics, the Preparatory School has undertaken the task of covering the elementary field, and of preparing its pupils at thirteen or fourteen years to enter the Public School. The education provided is not elementary in the usual sense, but deals with the elements of general education, and, in addition, with those of the subjects taught in the higher institutions. Many of the largest Public Schools have their own Preparatory Schools in organic relation with the main institution, and throughout the country are many private Preparatory Schools in which special training is given to prepare for entrance to some Public School.

The history of Non-Public Secondary Schools during the last forty years is complicated and confusing, and we shall merely note a few of the outstanding facts. The Board of Agriculture, created in 1889, was allowed to distribute a Parliamentary grant to agricultural education, and to still further complicate an ill-working machine by inspecting and reporting on any form of Higher Education which was connected with agriculture. In 1894 the Bryce Commis-

sion began its enquiry into Secondary Education, and revealed, in conjunction with the 1897 Census of English Secondary Schools, a deplorable state of disorder. As a result of the Bryce Commission recommendations, the Board of Education Act was passed in 1899, which established the new Board of Education as the Central Educational Authority, and a representative Consultative Committee as a Board of Advisers. Finally, the Education Acts of 1902 and 1903 gave County and Municipal Authorities powers over Secondary Education, thus ensuring public control over a large number of Secondary Schools already in existence, and in addition giving rise to the Municipal Day Secondary School.

The age for entering Secondary Schools varies; it is sometimes as low as eight, although the principal grant is paid only upon pupils of twelve years and upwards. The schools are classified by the Board of Education, so far as it has to do with them, according to the leaving age. First Grade Schools are those in which the pupils remain until eighteen or nineteen, and in which the main object is to prepare for the University or for the older professions. Second Grade Schools provide at least a four years' course, from twelve to sixteen, although the Board now gives considerable financial encouragement to these schools to keep their pupils a year or two longer.

When the regulations with regard to age have been satisfied and "the school has been inspected by the Board, and is regarded as providing efficient instruction and possessing adequate premises, it is placed on the list of Secondary Schools recognised by the Board as efficient." "If in addition certain further conditions are satisfied—*e.g.*, as to management, religious tests, financial position, scale of fees, etc.—the school may . . . be recognised as eligible for grant." Large numbers of good, bad, and

indifferent Secondary Schools will have nothing to do with the Board of Education, preferring to retain their independence and free initiative. This freedom, not without danger to the community, will possibly continue to be retained so long as the best of these schools do valuable work, and parents are willing to entrust their children's future to uncertain and unguaranteed agents. Perhaps, however, the State will step in and make use of the powers it possesses—not in a benumbing, but in a really vitalising way, wisely leaving freedom to those capable of using it.

Technical Schools

The first great impetus towards Technical Education was given by the great Exhibition of 1851, as a result of which the Science and Art Department was brought into existence. The teaching of drawing was subsidised by grants given for certificated proficiency in art, and extra grants were paid to schools or classes organised as "Science Schools" with a three years' course. Some literary instruction in these schools was afterwards made compulsory. Thus in 1894, outside London, thirty-nine Higher Grade and sixteen Endowed Secondary Schools were organised as Science Schools. At the same time the Evening Schools conducted similar courses, entitling them to the grants for science and art teaching. As a result, hopeless confusion reigned as to what was primary and what was secondary instruction. The "Cockerton" judgment in 1900 drew public and administrative attention to this state of things, and the Act of 1902, by putting the control of both Primary and Secondary Education into the hands of the same authority, made differentiation and co-ordination at length possible.

The confusion just alluded to was increased in 1889 by the appearance of a formidable rival to the Secondary Schools in the shape of Technical Schools. The power to

give technical instruction was conferred upon the recently established County Councils by the Technical Act, and in 1890 the Taxation (Customs and Excise) Act made over to the Councils the residue of the beer and spirit duties (known since as "whisky money") for application to technical and science and art instruction—a sum of money equal in amount to the whole income of the Endowed and Secondary Schools of the country. This money, together with the 1d. rate allowed, amounted to nearly one million pounds. The result was a severe handicapping of Secondary Education on the literary and cultural side, and a rush of pupils into Technical Schools before they had acquired the necessary foundation which only Secondary Education of a general kind could give them. The Act of 1902 cleared the ground for a system of progressive education, which is now on its way to realisation.

The trades and occupations have been broadly classified as (1) artistic handicrafts, such as metal-chasing and engraving, enamelling, carving, etc.; (2) partly manual trades, such as cabinet-making, plumbing, masonry, tailoring, etc.; (3) factory and workshop occupations; and (4) agricultural occupations; and it has been suggested that each class will require its own type of technical instruction.[1] Technical instruction has certainly developed along these lines, but not to the same extent as in Germany, where, for example, occupations such as butchering sometimes have their own special school for instruction in the technique of the business. In England there exist Schools of Building, of Arts and Crafts, of Engineering and Navigation; classes for bricklayers, gas-fitters, and for scores of other occupations. Nevertheless, Technical Schools in this country aim less at specialised trade teaching than at an understanding of the principles underlying a trade or group of trades.

[1] Cyril Jackson, "Outlines of Education in England."

Together, the Polytechnics and Municipal Technical Schools give excellent technical instruction, and in conjunction with the technical departments of University Colleges form the natural passage to post-graduate research work of the Provincial Universities and of the Imperial College of Science and Technology.

Continuation Schools

All kinds of institutions have contributed to the sum-total of agencies at work for promoting Continuation Education. The Sunday-Schools, Adult Schools, Mechanics' Institutes, the Working Men's Colleges, the Y.M.C.A., and many other agencies, have been important factors in the progress already made. In 1855 the first Government aid was afforded in the shape of grants to the often isolated classes for pupils between the ages of twelve and eighteen, managed by benevolent societies and private individuals. Considerable improvement resulted when in 1861 day-school teachers were permitted to give instruction in Evening Classes, and in 1870, with the establishment of School Boards, fresh impetus was given to the movement for Evening Education.

In 1890 an Evening School Code was published, and the upper age limit of pupils removed. As the Code demanded variety in the curriculum, interesting methods of teaching, and the introduction of games, the emphasis was slowly and naturally transferred from efficiency of work to entertainment, and the value of the work deteriorated. The difficulty spoken of in connection with the Technical Schools was reflected in the Evening Continuation Schools —the difficulty, namely, of finding instruction which the pupil was able to understand, and which could at the same time be called technical, in order to earn the grants for Technical Education. When in 1902 the often antagonistic authorities for primary and higher instruction were

made one, certain reforms became possible. The Act of 1870 had made it far less necessary to provide very elementary teaching in the Evening Schools, since the scholars had all received the education of the Primary School. As this education was not sufficient to provide the necessary foundation for technical training, the Evening Schools became the natural channel connecting Elementary and Technical Education. The work was now limited at both ends, and made to proceed along definite lines, and the Evening School took its place in a definite system. Its special aim is to continue the education of those who have left Elementary Schools, and to ensure the liberal or general characteristics of the work; the more specialised training is almost universally combined with general educational subjects into courses.

Excellent work has been and is being done in the Evening Schools of the country, but attendance has hitherto been voluntary. Under such a condition much valuable time, energy, and public money have been wasted, and by far the greater number of Primary School children have received no systematic instruction or discipline after the age of fourteen. Under the new Education Bill of 1918 this state of things comes to an end, and Continuation Education becomes compulsory until the age of sixteen is reached. The Bill permits this age at a later stage to be raised to eighteen.

Many leading business firms had, long before the recent Bill just referred to, made continuation instruction compulsory for their apprentices and younger workpeople. Other firms, although not making attendance at Continuation Schools a condition of employment, had encouraged it by every means within their power, and had thus contributed not a little to the cause of adolescent education.

Even the Army has been drawn into the movement, and quite apart from its own Schools and Training Depart-

ments, organised to meet its pre-war needs, has established in its graded battalions of A IV. men classes in which geography, economics, and social history, as well as many other subjects, are taught by whatever suitable type of man it has been possible to find. There are also voluntary classes for older men, and Education Schools at Oxford and Cambridge for the training of Army instructors.[1]

Many agencies besides the authorities just mentioned have been busy with the problem of Continuation Education. The University Extension Lecture organisation, established in 1873, has done, and is doing, admirable work by means of its popular lectures and class-work. The Adult School Movement, after receiving its modern impulse in 1845, had, in 1914, 1,883 schools, with a membership of over 80,000. In 1903 was founded the Workers' Educational Association, which in 1917 comprised 2,333 affiliated societies; the Association has organised one-year classes, study-circles, and courses of lectures, as well as supplying lecturers to other organisations. The University Tutorial Movement, established in 1907, organised three-year courses which aimed at reaching the standard of University work in Honours; the members of these classes are mainly working men and women. Ruskin College in Oxford and the Labour College in London provide residential courses which prepare working men and women to take official positions in Trade Unions and other industrial organisations. Co-operative Societies, Settlements, Field Clubs, Working Men's Clubs, are all making valuable contributions to the cause of Continuation Education. Summer Meetings and Vacation Courses, organised by the various associations already mentioned, will soon be as remarkable a feature of English Adult Education as of American. While the greater part of Continuation Educa-

[1] See Second Interim Report of the Adult Education Committee, "Education in the Army," 1918. (Cd. 9225.)

tion has been carried on in the industrial and urban centres, the rural districts have been by no means idle. The Committee on Adult Education singles out for particular mention a Kent rural district where one organisation covers a dozen villages and small towns.[1]

When the enormous difficulties under which many men and women endeavour to procure educational opportunities are considered—difficulties with regard to hours of labour, overtime, the shift system, night work, distance, home study, and numberless others—it is easy to realise the possibilities open to our country when Continuation Education becomes widely distributed and thoroughly organised.[1]

Training Colleges

The organisation for the training of teachers has always been outside what may be called the educational system of the country. The Local Authorities have since 1902 been compelled by the State to make provision for both Elementary and Secondary Education, but until quite recently all the Training Colleges had been founded by societies, and for the most part by religious societies. Until quite recently the supply of Training Colleges was totally inadequate to the needs of the times, thousands of candidates for the teaching profession being unable to obtain places. So inadequate was the provision, and so entirely quiescent was the Central Authority on the subject, that it might have occurred to a student of education that the State wished to severely limit the number of trained elementary teachers. Since 1902 the larger Local Authorities have been encouraged by means of large building grants from the national exchequer to build Training Colleges for the purpose of meeting the needs of the district. Thus at the

[1] See Interim Report of the Committee on Adult Education, 1918 (Cd. 9107). Also "Reconstruction Problems—Labour Conditions and Adult Education."

present time there exist Training Colleges for Elementary teachers which are carried on by the Church of England, the Wesleyan Church, the Roman Catholic Church, by the British and Foreign School Society, and by certain of the larger municipalities, all under Government inspection, and depending for their maintenance upon the Government grant paid for each student in attendance. Most of the Colleges are residential or have hostels attached. The older Training Colleges are almost entirely residential.

Many educationists have in the last few years expressed themselves very strongly against the system of training students for the teaching profession in institutions devoted solely to that purpose. They have seen in the enforced segregation an influence which hinders the development of broad views and wide interests, so necessary to a teacher, and have urged the necessity of putting the Training Colleges in close touch with the Universities. These views are meeting with almost general acceptance, and it is probable that before long radical changes of this nature will take place. Already there are a number of Training Colleges closely attached to Universities, as in London, Manchester, and Leeds; the students receive their academic training in the University, and their professional training is given by the staff of the Training College.

Training Colleges for elementary teachers are now usually classified, according to the nature of the responsible body, as University, Council, or Voluntary. The first-mentioned are either Training Departments of Universities or of Constituent Colleges of Universities, Training Departments of University Colleges, or Training Colleges provided by a University. Council Colleges are those which are provided by Local Education Authorities.

The ordinary course of training covers two years, and occasionally is extended to three. For students of a College closely connected with a University and providing a

course of study leading to a degree, the course is usually one of three years, and in the case of students aiming at an Honours Degree four years.

The Board has authorised two principal methods for obtaining a constant flow of students into the Training Colleges. "A Local Education Authority for Higher or Elementary Education may recommend for recognition as bursars boys or girls who intend to become in the future Elementary School teachers and are attending full time at a Secondary School . . . but require assistance in order to render their continuance at the school financially possible." A bursar is recognised for one year only. The candidate must be over sixteen and under eighteen, and his parents must sign a declaration of the bona-fide intention of the bursar to become a teacher in a Public Elementary School. He must produce a certificate from the head master or mistress of the Secondary School stating that he is not unsuitable for the profession, and that he may reasonably be expected to pass an examination during his bursarship qualifying for entrance to a Training College. At the end of the year of recognition, bursars may, if they do not remain at the Secondary School, either (1) enter a Training College for Elementary teachers,[1] or (2) enter a Training School of domestic subjects, or (3) become student teachers . . . in an area in which the authority has brought into operation a scheme approved by the Board of Education for the supervision of student teachers. The student teachership lasts ordinarily for one year, but may be continued for a second year with the approval of the Board of Education. During this period a considerable time must be spent under supervision in an Elementary School; the rest of the time is generally spent in the

[1] A list of the examinations qualifying for admission to a Training College is given in Appendix A of the "Regulations for the Training of Teachers for Elementary Schools," and in Circular 1166.

Secondary School attended as a bursar. The original arrangement was that the student teacher attended the Elementary School not more than eight times per week, but under recent regulations the Board allows Local Authorities to submit schemes adapted to local conditions in regard to the division of the time between training, instruction, and recreation. At the end of this period the student teacher enters a Training College.[1]

Persons over eighteen years of age, who have been neither bursars nor student teachers, may enter a Training College on condition that they have passed the qualifying examination, and on the further condition that they receive during their Training College course an adequate amount of practice in teaching.

One feature of this system has met with considerable criticism. Head-teachers of Secondary Schools find great difficulty in dealing with the student teachers attending their schools only twice a week. They form usually a small and somewhat alien section, whose chief interests lie outside the school, and whom it is difficult to fit into the school organisation. When Training Colleges become integral parts of Universities the difficulty will be overcome.

The second principal means of entrance to a Training College is through a course of training and instruction as pupil-teachers. The Regulations provide that boys and girls who are receiving (*a*) training in teaching in Public Elementary Schools, together with (*b*) instruction accepted by the Board, may be recognised as pupil-teachers. The period for which they are recognised is normally two years. The Local Education Authority undertakes to see that the pupil-teacher receives proper training in teaching and a

[1] For exceptions to these arrangements see "Regulations for the Preliminary Education of Elementary School Teachers," pp. 2-3. The exceptions usually refer to pupil-teachers in country schools.

course of academic instruction. He may be employed for not more than half and not less than a quarter of the number of Elementary School meetings throughout the period for which he is recognised, and in addition to the time set apart for his academic instruction he must have either two half-days or one whole day in each week free from employment. Great care is exercised by the Board that the centres for instruction of pupil-teachers are adapted to the task. A Pupil-Teachers' Centre may either form an integral part of a Secondary School recognised as efficient and suitably equipped for the special purpose, or be regarded as attached to one or more Secondary Schools or Higher Elementary Schools, or be conducted as a separate institution. The minimum number of hours and times during which the pupil-teacher may attend are also fixed. Preparatory classes for boys and girls intending to become pupil-teachers may provide instruction between the ages of fourteen and sixteen, and must fulfil the Board's other conditions.[1]

It is tolerably clear what the common aim of these two methods of securing trained recruits for the teaching profession is. The old pupil-teacher system failed in several ways. At a very early age it segregated the candidates to their great hurt; it also placed too much work and responsibility upon the shoulders of very inexperienced young people, often to their own disadvantage and to that of the scholars they taught. They acquired also too often merely empirical methods of teaching, formed habits good and bad before they were old enough to reflect successfully, and retained them during a grotesquely long pupil-teachership until they had lost the plasticity necessary in bringing about any modification of them. These faults the present systems have done something to correct. One thing, how-

[1] For further information on the whole subject see "Regulations for the Preliminary Education of Elementary School Teachers."

ever, the old system seems to have done successfully: it conferred upon the pupil-teacher a facility in managing children, "in keeping his or her end up" before a class which the present pupil-teacher and the student teacher often lack. The cure for present failings seems to lie in effecting a compromise between the two systems.

The provision for training Secondary School teachers is very small, although it has to be remembered that many students trained in Colleges for Elementary teachers find employment later in Second Grade Elementary Schools. Even making allowance for the small number of pupils in Secondary Schools compared with those in Elementary Schools, the proportion of trained Secondary teachers is absurdly low. The chief reason for this state of things is to be found in the remarkable belief held by very many persons interested in Higher Education that training is unnecessary. It is assumed that a man or woman of knowledge and culture can teach without studying the art of teaching. There is generally a grain of truth in any nonsense, and it is true that the trained teacher runs the risk of having his enthusiasm and innate teaching gifts reduced to a sterile formalism. The mass of candidates for the teaching profession, nevertheless, need training, and benefit by it.

The course followed in the Secondary Training Colleges is confined to professional work, and must extend over not less than a full academical year. Only those students are recognised who have obtained a degree or some other approved qualification previous to the commencement of their course. It is an essential condition of the recognition of a College that suitable Secondary Schools should be available in which students can study and practise the art of teaching. The Board of Education has lately favoured an arrangement by which a Training College or a Training Department of a University works in close connection with

a group of approved Secondary Schools. The Training College undertakes the ultimate responsibility for the whole of the student's training, and delegates the responsibility for the practical training to the authorities of Secondary Schools of an approved type. This organisation is thus a compromise between two types—one which makes the Training College the centre and the other which makes the school the centre of the training of the student.

CHAPTER III

BUILDINGS, FURNITURE, AND EQUIPMENT

THE school building plays its part in the educative process. If it occupies a position of dignity, stands out from its commonplace surroundings, has an appearance both inside and outside which commands respect, and is light and cheerful within, the effect upon the pupil is bound to be good. When, as is unfortunately so often the case, it is cramped among dwellings, built like a factory or barracks, and is dull and cheerless, the effect is just as certain to be bad. It is desirable, too, that the pupils should feel attracted to their school, should admire it as an institution; and from this point of view no care spent on adding dignity and beauty to the building can be considered as wasted. The more uncongenial the surroundings, the greater the necessity for a fine school.

The effect upon the parents and other inhabitants of the district is also considerable. The Englishman is notorious for his contempt of, or at least his indifference to, education, and if a few millions spent on school buildings would convert him, the investment would be a paying one.

The teacher more than anyone feels the influence of noble surroundings. His life tends to become largely routine, and is felt to be monotonous. Through the constant need for "fool explanations" and for repetition *ad nauseam*, through everlasting contact with minds far less developed than his own, he often comes to regard himself as a "hack." When to this is joined a depressing building, with badly lighted rooms, labyrinthine corridors, or

windows too far from the floor to permit a glimpse of the outside world, then he may indeed feel himself in a backwash of human activity. No one can measure the amount of influence that school buildings have had upon the teaching profession.

It is undeniable that some of the best educational work and training has been done in buildings ill-fitted for their purpose. But it should be remembered that such work has been done in spite of disadvantageous conditions, and that while teachers of genius and of a naturally cheerful temperament may rise superior to circumstances, others, and by far the greater number, are extremely sensitive to them. The principles which condition the activities of the ordinary human being, and not those of the genius, are most worth attention. When the school building, like the church, possesses a dignity and artistic beauty of its own commensurate with its importance, influencing in the fullest possible manner pupils, parents, and teachers, the whole organisation of education will feel its beneficent effects, and the schools of the country may then become institutions around which centre the affections of its people, and social as well as educational activities.

School architecture is still in the experimental stage. The hygienic and educational problems involved are by no means mastered. It is anticipated that changes in our educational methods will in the immediate future be at least as rapid as in the past, that many of the more imposing edifices lately erected will in thirty or forty years be structurally antiquated. The growing realisation of the importance of manual and physical work, of securing the active collaboration of the pupils, and of open-air work, will necessitate school buildings of a type very different from those of to-day. Hence it seems inadvisable to build schools of a very enduring structure.

In deciding upon the site of a school building, care should be taken that it is in an open spot, and that the surroundings should not be of an undesirable kind. It should not be built near noisy factories, workshops, railways, or busy roads, and, if possible, should be reasonably near some park or open space. The class-rooms should, as a rule, face south-east or east. It has been customary, generally owing to lack of space, to build the Elementary School on three floors, but it is desirable to choose a site where the school building can be made to cover a larger area, the ideal being that the whole school should be on the ground floor.

The new demand for open-air classes will necessitate some modifications in the nature of the playground—perhaps the presence of a number of trees to provide shade. The school garden, too, will demand more playground space. Roof playgrounds are useful where better provision is impossible. The Board of Education Regulations stipulate in schools of less than 200 children a minimum playground space of 2,000 square feet, together with 20 square feet for each older and 6 square feet for each younger child. The shape of the playground should approximate to a square, and should have a warm, sunny aspect.

In the planning of the school building consideration has to be given to the proposed organisation into departments and classes, and to the number of children the school is intended to accommodate. With regard to the first, the rule laid down in the Regulations is that no single department should contain more than 400 children, and Local Authorities are advised that separate departments for older boys and girls make organisation easier and more efficient. The question as to whether children under five years of age should be admitted to the school is now left to the discretion of the Local Education Authority, and the decision

must affect the general plan of the building. Moreover, in different districts the leaving age varies; in some parts of the country the top classes are very small; in other parts fairly large; and this has to be considered when the school is to be erected. The question arises as to what is the ideal size. In our large towns it would appear that between 300 and 400 is regarded as the most convenient complement of a department, and therefore between 900 and 1,200 of the whole school. In the large towns of Germany the number of children in one school often reaches 2,000 or 3,000, and among these there are none under six years of age. It is evident that the two countries have different opinions on the subject. On the one hand, classification tends to become more efficient when the school is large; but on the other, the organisation becomes more machine-like and misses the direct influence of the head-teacher, who can only very seldom know anything of individuals. There is little doubt that the last consideration is of vital importance, and English teachers have always attached great value to it. It is, however, very difficult to adhere always to a good principle in the face of actual conditions. For example, the swift growth of some towns or parts of towns has created an emergency which can only be met by building a very large school; for land has been very expensive, and one plot is cheaper than two. For these and other reasons we find schools of different sizes. In London the schools are graded according to their size; Grade I. having any number of pupils up to 200, Grade II. from 200 to 400, and Grade III. more than 400, so that even in the largest there is nothing to prevent the head-teacher's influence being felt throughout the school.

The population of some neighbourhoods fluctuates very much, and a sudden increase has brought about the erection of some very large schools; ten or twenty years later, with the completion of the great engineering work or the

exhaustion of the mine, the population has become normal and left the schools without pupils. It has been found advisable, therefore, to meet a sudden need for increased accommodation by putting up small temporary buildings in the playground or near the school, and to dismantle them when the emergency is over. Such temporary buildings may, when suitably constructed, be used again and again to meet similar passing needs.

The provision of a hall is essential to any large school, and this need, again, complicates the question of the general plan of the school. The school building erected after 1870 consisted generally of three floors, arranged symmetrically one over the other. The infant department was invariably on the ground floor, the boys usually occupied the middle, and the girls the top floor. Frequently corridors ran along the length of the school and the class-rooms opened out from them. The corridor developed into a central hall, and for many years no large school building was erected without a central hall, with class-rooms opening out of it generally on all four sides.

One great disadvantage of this arrangement was the failure to secure an adequate supply of fresh air in class-room and hall. Moreover, several of the class-rooms would necessarily be deprived of adequate sunlight and natural heat. Efficient ventilation and a proper supply of sunlight are now known to be vital to health; it is therefore regarded as essential that class-rooms should be so arranged that they obtain the necessary supplies of fresh air and sunlight. To obtain the former they must have unobstructed windows on two opposite sides of the rooms. To secure the latter the windows must not face north. The centrally-placed hall was also a constantly disturbing factor. Since physical exercises and chorus-singing were often carried on there, the resultant noise was very distracting

for the children in adjacent class-rooms. This was specially true in the case of the infant department, where the hall was in constant use the whole day, and where restrictions as to noise would be educationally most harmful. The educational value of a hall—its use for assembly, the opportunity it offers for cultivating a corporate life—is so great that it cannot be dispensed with, and a great deal of thought has been given to the problem of how to retain it without retaining the disadvantages.

Some schools have been designed on the lines of the following rough diagram :

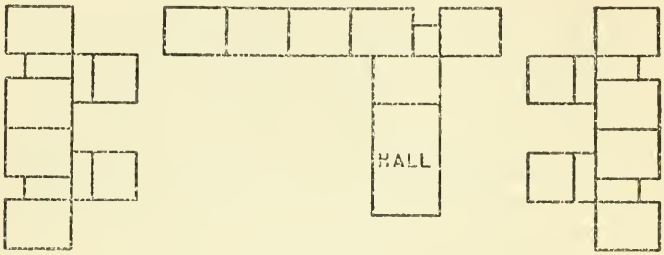


Fig. 1.

The common hall is placed close to the infant department, and can be reached from it by means of a covered verandah. The children of the other departments have sometimes to brave the elements to reach it. To every class-room through ventilation and direct sunlight are secured, and no classes are disturbed by the noise which is so often a necessary element of work or play in the central hall. As all departments use the hall, it is probable that each department uses it insufficiently, and there would be considerable advantage if the infants had in addition a large room for organised games and free movement.

Another variant is roughly as follows:

Fig. 2.

In this case the school is not a "pavilion school," but is built in storeys, and would therefore be more suitable for an urban area where land is expensive. At the same time, it is evident that such a plan requires more space than the old type of school, and owing to the projecting wings diminishes effective playground space. Perhaps, too, such a plan increases the difficulty in the way of an artistic design. None the less, the great aim being to secure hygienic efficiency, it is probable that the advantages outweigh the disadvantages.

It is in the class-room that pupil and teacher spend most of their time, and therefore any care spent upon making it thoroughly hygienic, comfortable, and artistic will not be wasted. The Board of Education by its Regulations lays down minimum demands with regard to the first two conditions.

For infants at least 9 square feet per head of floor-space must be provided, and 10 square feet for older children. Long and narrow rooms must be avoided, because they throw a strain upon children's sight and the teacher's voice, and make supervision and instruction difficult. It will be advisable to have class-rooms of different sizes, since classes tend to diminish in numbers as the leaving age approaches, and variations in numbers occur owing to promotion and other causes. There should be, too, a sufficient number to preclude the necessity of two teachers

working in the same class-room. The latter regulation, together with another forbidding the use of class-rooms as passage-ways either to other class-rooms or to entrances, secures for the modern teacher and his work a degree of comfort unknown to former generations.

Teachers of only twenty years' experience will remember the congested state of many rooms. The Regulations are now quite clear with regard to this point, and demand that a space of 7 feet 6 inches along the whole front of the class be kept free of desks; that gangways between dual desks be 1 foot 4 inches in width; and that 1 foot of space be left between the last rows of desks and the walls. Temporary difficulties, however, often cause a suspension of these rules.

In arranging the desks care should be taken that the most favourable position for good lighting is selected; they should be placed so that the light falls from the left of the pupils. It is better that neither teacher nor pupils should face windows, since objects between the observer and a strong light are seen with difficulty. With artificial lighting, too, certain necessary precautions should be taken. When natural light on winter days begins to fail, all instruction which involves looking at small print or blackboard writing should be discontinued, or carried on only under really good artificial light. Far too little attention is given to this matter. Teachers should never, under any conditions, allow children to undertake work which involves the slightest strain upon the eyes. Every Local Authority, too, should regard it as a most important duty to see that the lighting is sufficient to enable the pupils to do their work without this strain. When gas is used, the installation should include a provision by means of which the fumes are driven out of the room. If the ordinary incandescent burner is employed, the greatest care should be taken to secure a constant current of fresh air. Elec-

tric lighting is probably the best, as it neither heats to any extent nor vitiates the air of the room.

"The colouring of the walls and ceilings and of all fittings in the rooms should be carefully considered as affecting the light." Those parts of the wall which grimy fingers can touch should of a dark colour, so as not to show the dirt; the upper parts require a colour, such as pale green, which neither absorbs light nor fatigues the eye.

The proper ventilation of the class-room is a matter of the first importance. The health of the child, his power to attend and respond to instruction, his behaviour, and, in fact, his whole future, depend to a great degree upon the provision of fresh air. The teacher can and must help in this vital matter. He can see that sufficient windows are open top and bottom; that the proper windows are open, the proper blinds are drawn, and that during recreation and lunch hour the rooms are thoroughly flushed. Even under unfavourable conditions these matters can be attended to, and many of the worst evils of bad ventilating arrangements mitigated. In Continental countries and in America the great cold has produced the double window and the overheated and often stuffy room. The same impulse which leads the German traveller to close all the railway-carriage windows makes the German schoolmaster seal up his class-room in the same way, with the result that the atmosphere is frequently unbearable. No one can tell what the evil effects upon the children have been. In our own country the blessings of fresh air are more generally recognised, but even here much more thought would be given to the subject if its importance were more clearly realised. Much has been done by designers of schools to aid the teacher in this work, and the Board of Education rightly insists that certain conditions should be observed. "The inlets for fresh air should be large and

well distributed, and be provided with some arrangement to divert the incoming air from striking directly on to the children and teachers." The "draught-board," so common in nearly all urban schools, by directing the incoming air upwards, permits the opening of the lower part of the window. Mr. Clay strongly recommends that glazed hoppers should be fitted to all the window-frames down each side of the room. The sash should be of the rising type, so that the space by which the air enters can be made large or small. In hopper openings at the top of windows the slant of the swing window is inwards and upwards, so that the incoming air is directed first to the ceiling. It is found, however, that its force is not spent on striking the ceiling, and that in cold weather it descends as a cold draught upon the heads of the children. Centre-hung swing panes should in mild weather be open as wide as possible, and in cold weather used for flushing purposes. Other means of admitting fresh air, especially necessary when in winter many windows must be closed or almost closed, are by means of Tobin's tubes, ventilating grates, and openings behind the hot-water radiators.

Mechanical and combined systems of heating and ventilation in which air raised to a sufficient temperature to warm the rooms is used for ventilation are not to be recommended. The Plenum system is an example. For efficient working all windows and doors have to be kept closed; the windows are fastened and are practically never opened. In all these systems "the stimulating and invigorating effects of fresh, cool air are lost"; and in addition the children acquire the bad habit of sitting in rooms with closed windows. As private houses are never supplied with such a system of ventilation, the children miss those practical lessons in natural ventilation which would be of real service in their home life.

In England the problem of heating rooms properly is

much simpler than in Continental countries and in America, where the cold is sometimes severe and prolonged. In our own schools and under normal conditions it is a fairly simple matter to maintain the proper temperature of between 56° and 60° F. It must be remembered, however, that the facility of the problem by no means obviates the necessity of dealing with it. Room temperatures of 50° F. involve a discomfort to the pupils which is opposed to mental activity, and a temperature in the neighbourhood of 40° lowers the vitality to such a degree as to make school work almost barren of results. The teacher sometimes forgets the difference between his own position and that of the children ; he is constantly moving : they are often sitting still for prolonged periods ; he can put on an extra coat, and the woman teacher often does so : they cannot ; he has warm winter clothing : they are frequently ill-clothed ; he can scarcely help being in the neighbourhood of the fire : many of the pupils are remote from it. These differences should be remembered, and steps taken to render the children as comfortable as possible. In cold weather they should have plenty of opportunities for movement ; frequent exercise should be taken and the thermometer should be frequently consulted in order to see that the temperature is being maintained at the required height. The amount of heating is largely determined by the kind and amount of ventilation, "for the full use of fresh-air openings is largely governed by the power of quickly warming the room. Where cross-ventilation is provided, a single fireplace will be insufficient to warm the room." In a large room heated by an open fire the heating should be supplemented by hot-water pipes on the side farthest from the fire. As a rule the teacher has no voice in the choice of the system of heating, by open fire, stoves, gas radiators, warm air, or hot water, but he can do his best to apply his knowledge of principles, so

that the air of his class-room is kept as fresh as possible and as warm or as cool as under the existing conditions is best calculated to maintain his scholars' health and mental activity.

The furniture of the class-room should be of a non-obstructive kind, and easily movable, so as to allow of the class-room being easily cleaned. It is, for example, better to have cupboards let into the wall than separate ones. It is better to have single or dual desks than long ones. It should be possible to clear a room easily and render it available for freer forms of movement, or for handwork and activities which require large flat tables instead of desks. If University desks are ordinarily employed, and the class-room floor is level throughout, this becomes an easy matter. In such a room, wall-slates at a proper height should be provided in plenty, especially in all infants' class-rooms. For the youngest children small tables with chairs are preferable to desks, so that the floor-space may be made easily available for free movements. It is almost equally important that the older children should enjoy the same advantages, and that we should rid ourselves of the notion that our pupils must always be seated at desks.

In front of the class and close to the middle of the rear wall a platform is sometimes placed, to enable the teacher to overlook the whole class. The platform should be movable, so that it need occupy room-space only when the teacher is diminutive. It should not be more than 6 inches high, and if placed as far from the class as possible will involve no muscular strain to neck or eyes of the nearest pupils. As a rule it is unnecessary, and table and black-boards are the only furniture which should occupy the space in front of the class.

"Seats and either desks or tables should be provided for all the children, varying in size according to the heights of

the children, and placed at right angles to the window wall. The seats should be fitted with backs. If desks are supplied, they must be single or dual. In selecting seats attention should be paid to the following points:

"(*a*) The height from the floor to the seat should be such as to allow the child when seated to rest its foot on the ground or on a suitable footboard. The upper part of the children's leg should be horizontal and the lower part vertical.

"(*b*) The height from the seat to the writing surface should allow the child when writing to sit *upright* in an easy position.

"(*c*) The edge of the writing surface should be almost directly over the edge of the seat. It is better that the writing surface should overlap the seat somewhat than that there should be any appreciable distance, measured horizontally, between the two edges."

The teacher has generally little or nothing to do with the selection of desks, but he can be awake to the necessities of the situation. He can try to approximate as closely as possible to the above rules by using intelligently the desks placed in his room, and choosing for each child the desk best adapted to his size. In cases where the room contains no desks to suit certain children, he may be able to effect exchanges with other teachers similarly placed. When suitable desks have been allocated they should be retained, and a fresh distribution made as soon as the bodily growth of the pupils demand it. If a child has to stand, he should move out from the desk into the gangway to allow of an erect position. It is impossible to insist too strongly on the necessity for allowing children to change their position frequently, to do work which does not involve sitting, and to move about with a reasonable degree of freedom. And when they are compelled by certain kinds of work to keep seated, the intelligent and humane

teacher will be constantly on the alert to encourage or enforce good healthy sitting positions, for in spite of the most hygienic desks children can and do assume most unhealthy positions.

In general, it may be said that one of the most important duties of the teacher is to counteract the injurious effects upon his pupils of confinement, of prolonged sitting, and consequent loss of the advantage of natural and beneficial activity; to achieve this by vigilant attention to the changing physical conditions under which instruction has to be carried on; by not relying upon the mechanical hygienic arrangements of the class-room, but by constantly applying common sense and scientific health principles to the school routine. The young teacher is often so closely occupied with problems of order and methods of teaching that he overlooks this side of his work entirely, and only under the supervision of a watchful head-teacher will he come to regard this side of his work seriously. Nothing can compensate for loss of health, and loss of health is often brought about by neglect of matters apparently insignificant.

It is desirable that the accommodation of schools should be somewhat greater than the actual average number of children in attendance, and that there should be one or two rooms in excess of the actual number of classes. These extra rooms are specially necessary when it is not easy to clear the floor-space of class-rooms in the way previously described. The extra rooms could be used for practical work—Nature-study, handwork of all kinds—and by various classes in turn. The Regulations rightly suggest that such rooms would be better without fixed furniture, but unfortunately permit them to be reckoned towards the accommodation which the school is recognised as providing. In the infant school one of these rooms would naturally become the playroom.

The extra room must not be considered a substitute for the handicraft room, which should be modelled on the basis of a workshop rather than a school. Most Local Authorities, in order to reduce expenditure, have established Handicraft Centres to which the pupils of a group of schools are sent in turn. Under the conditions which existed when handicraft was first introduced this was necessary, because the subject was still in its experimental stage, and also in order to make the best use of the small number of qualified teachers. It is now no longer in the experimental stage, and a very large number of teachers have qualified themselves to teach it. Not only so; it has been brought into very close relations with the other subjects of the curriculum, and is now also prized as an indispensable method of teaching geography, technical drawing, and other subjects. Instead, therefore, of centres which are nearly always alien to the life and purposes of the individual school, there should be a handicraft room in every large school, under the direct supervision of the head-teacher, who would co-ordinate the work done there with the general school activities. The same remarks apply, in a modified form perhaps, to the organisation for the teaching of domestic subjects, such as cookery, laundry-work, and general housewifery. In small schools, the children will naturally attend the centres for such subjects. "A large room, suitable for instruction in cookery and laundry-work, would also be suitable for the teaching of combined domestic subjects, with the addition of at least two adjoining rooms, each approximately 14 feet by 12 feet, furnished as a sitting-room and bedroom respectively."

In Higher Elementary and Central Schools there should be a room specially fitted for advanced drawing, arranged so that it receives a north light; and besides a simply furnished laboratory for practical science work, there should be a demonstration room with demonstration table

and a steep gallery to afford a proper view of the teacher's experimental procedure.

It is obvious that many of the material advantages mentioned will be all but impossible in the case of small schools. These material disadvantages may be balanced by the spiritual and intellectual advantages of more intimate contact with the head-teacher, and the school conditions may make for equally efficient work. The head-teacher frequently teaches the three or four highest standards himself, and has perhaps two assistants for the rest of the upper schools. In such a case it will be necessary to have a "main room"—that is, a room in which such composite classes can be divided into sections in order to make the instruction efficient. The main room may thus be occupied by two or three standards, working at different tasks, one of them being under direct oral instruction. It is desirable, therefore, that the room used in this way should be considerably larger than an ordinary class-room, and, where there is no hall, should have space sufficient to allow of physical exercises and other free work of the kind already described.

It has become a time-honoured custom to hang maps, pictures, and illustrative work of all kinds upon the walls of the class-rooms. Some teachers believe that a map which is permanently placed before the pupils will end by impressing its features upon them. Experience shows, however, that children's attention is very rarely turned to familiar objects, and that therefore no educational good accrues. The subconscious effects of the surroundings are, nevertheless, great. When the pictures are worthless from an artistic point of view, the colours crude, and the surface dirty; when the maps are defaced and cracked by long usage and exposure; when, in fact, the children's general surroundings are inartistic, their taste tends to become depraved. Like the school building itself, the

class-room should possess a dignity of its own, and exercise a beneficial influence on all who spend their time there. Maps should usually be consigned to store-room cupboards, and only worthy illustrations should appear on the walls of the rooms.

Cleanliness and brightness should characterise the class-room. Monitors, if properly directed and supervised, will give the finishing touches to the work of the school cleaner, and a few plants and well-chosen pictures will contribute to make the class-room a cheerful and comfortable place, in which the cultivation of a healthy body and a healthy mind meets with no unnecessary obstacles.

The Secondary School

A great part of what has already been said of the Elementary School building and equipment applies equally to the Secondary School. Certain modifications in the arrangements are necessary in order to satisfy the different conditions. In the Secondary School, for example, the scholars are in general older, and their work is also of a more advanced type. The approach of adolescence is characterised by bodily and mental conditions which require to be met in part by a suitable material environment. Growth is rapid and energy diminishes; it is a time of nervous disintegration, and, more important than all else, the primary and secondary sex functions begin to play their part. With diminished energy, there is a return to passive attention; dull and formal repetition of all kinds, unless the material is interesting, becomes tedious. The power to think abstractly, to understand principles appears, and memorising must now be carried on by means of logical connections. The pupil begins to experience and to sympathise with hitherto almost unknown emotions, such as love, jealousy, pity. His ideals begin to take shape, and, to his confusion, appear often in strange con-

tradiction with each other. His personality begins to show more definitely, and the ambitions and more permanent desires begin to indicate what path in life he will follow. Arbitrary authority is now ruled out and reason takes its place.

To these bodily and mental changes even the school buildings and adjuncts must adjust themselves. We note, for example, that to the freer and less highly organised games of childhood succeed self-controlled and finely adjusted gymnastic movements; and for these a gymnasium is required. The free play of younger children develops in adolescence into more highly organised group games and contests in which the individual is subordinated to the team; and for these the school needs a playing-field. The class-rooms should be spacious and the classes somewhat smaller. Science laboratories, art rooms, and music rooms should be provided. We may, indeed, assert that the guiding principle in differentiating between the Elementary and the Secondary scholar is based upon differences of physical and intellectual characteristics and upon the difference of aims in the two branches of education. Anything to which this principle cannot be applied, anything over and above what this principle directs, must be either a superfluity or something to which the Elementary School child is equally entitled.

It should be noted that many children of the highest classes of the Elementary School are undergoing the same physical and mental developments as those of the Secondary School. Poor and well-to-do, scholarship and non-scholarship pupils, all have to pass through the same gate to manhood or womanhood. Arguing, therefore, from the nature of the older scholar, there will be but little need to differentiate. The additional provision of science and art rooms will be the result of attempting more advanced work.

The differences between Elementary and Secondary

School children have been over-emphasised. It is common knowledge that the Secondary School provided by the municipality is built and equipped in a style superior to the Elementary School. The playground is, in accordance with the Regulations of the Board of Education, very much larger and is provided with seats; there are playing-fields of at least 2 acres, and a gymnasium with minimum dimensions of 50 and 25 feet. It is laid down that class-rooms of Elementary Schools should not be designed for more than 60, or at the rate of 2 for every 100 pupils; those of Secondary Schools for not more than 30, or at the rate of 4 for every 100 pupils. The provision of extra rooms, lecture rooms, and a library, is also recommended for the latter. The hall of the Elementary School should have, we are told, a floor space of about 3½ square feet for each scholar; that of the Secondary School one of from 6 to 8 square feet. The class-room of the former is planned on the 10 square feet basis, and of the latter on the basis of from 16 to 18 square feet per child.

With reference to the Elementary School, it is stated in quite a theoretical manner that, "where possible, arrangements for drying wet clothes are valuable"; with reference to the Secondary School that "it is very desirable to provide a small drying room for wet cloaks." "In large Secondary Schools," too, "it is desirable to provide changing rooms, which should be fitted with fixed seats, pegs, lockers, and boot-racks." In the matter of lavatories, the former should provide both in boys' and girls' departments 1 lavatory basin for every 25 children; the latter 1 for every 20 boys and 1 for every 10 girls up to 100. The same exaggeration of the differences between the needs of Elementary and Secondary School children is found in many other directions, always to the disadvantage of the former. We find the same marked differences when we examine the recommendations with regard to the accommodation

for the teacher. The Elementary "Teachers' Rooms" and appurtenances are on a scale much inferior to that of the "Staff Rooms" and corresponding arrangements for Secondary teachers.

Many of the differences just noted are necessary, some of them seem over-emphasised, and some seem rather arbitrary. It is quite possible that the two schemes of planning have been worked out independently. It is none the less necessary to maintain that the schools of the people require as much attention and care in all that conduces to physical well-being, comfort, and individual self-respect as those of the middle classes. Humanitarians might reasonably claim that the Elementary School children's needs are greater, and thus require more attention.

CHAPTER IV

PRINCIPLES OF THE CURRICULUM—ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

WHAT are the children for whom the State has organised an educational system and established schools to be taught? So far in this book we have been dealing with mere material arrangements, which are important only because they make the work of educating possible. Now we are in contact with almost the central problem of education, the solution of which is vital. Only one matter is more important, that, namely, of securing conditions favourable to the development of the spirit which shall put life into the matter chosen for instruction. Here, however, we are concerned with the question of what we should teach.

The question is not a new one; it has exercised the best minds from remotest ages, and although some approximation to the truth has been reached, no final solution has yet been obtained. It may be that there is no final solution to it; the problem is a dynamic and not a static one; its data are constantly changing, and a curriculum suitable to-day might in a short time be so no longer. One thing is clear: it is essential to discover some principle of guidance which, however much the conditions vary, may help in determining the matter of instruction. Our examination of the problem should therefore begin with the formulation of a conception of the aim or purpose of education.

It is necessary to realise that no principle or conception of any value contains within itself the manner of its con-

crete application. Broad principles discoverable as to the aim and purpose of education can only afford general directions; they cannot point directly and immediately to the ideal contents of the curriculum. Even if agreement is reached as to these broad principles, there will be various interpretations of the methods of application. Moreover, these applications will vary according as we are dealing with the great masses of society, with special groupings, or with other widely diverse conditions. We shall first consider the case of the great masses of children, and shall endeavour to discover whether there is a central and explicit purpose in the education of Elementary School pupils. If this can be found it will serve to indicate the general lines upon which the curriculum should be constructed.

The necessity of formulating this aim has, in recent years, been very generally felt, and many attempts have been made to define it. Each view of the aim has naturally been coloured by personal convictions and philosophies of life. Some educationists have decided that the development of the intellectual powers is the chief purpose of education, others the growth of personality, others that of character; some efficiency as a member of society, others independence and reliance upon oneself; some have come to regard the implanting of religious feeling, others the formation of a definite theological belief, as the central purpose.

When the problem of the curriculum has been seriously taken in hand, these various ideals have been used as criteria in the selection of material. The different branches of study have been closely scrutinised, with the view of ascertaining what help they provide towards the achievement of the particular aim desired. This scrutiny has given rise to a number of theories with regard to educational values which have greatly influenced the choice

of studies. Some of these are true, but many of them contain a great deal of error, and one object of this chapter is to indicate wherein these theories are adequate or inadequate.

Education is regarded by many as being directed chiefly to the training of the mind—that is to say, to making the mind a powerful instrument of thought capable of coping efficiently with any ordinary or extraordinary situations which may arise. It matters less to these theorists what quantity or even what particular type of information or knowledge is to be stored up in the mind, and far more what particular discipline is given to the mind in the process of taking it. Process and acquired mental powers are with them the important consideration. This view is handicapped by two circumstances. First, substance cannot thus be divorced from process; knowledge cannot be absorbed in this unreal fashion; the process of acquiring specific knowledge depends to a large degree upon the nature of the subject-matter. Second, the view is attached to and dependent upon an erroneous conception of the nature of the mind itself. This is conceived as consisting of faculties or general powers, such as reasoning, memory, observation, and others. The phrenological idea of the mind is still quite common, even such characteristics as accuracy, industry, and neatness being regarded as general powers or faculties capable of growth as wholes.

Since these faculties are considered to be indivisible wholes, it is argued that the learning of a particular subject which necessitates the constant use of a particular "faculty" will result in such a development of that faculty that it can be employed with almost or quite equal facility and certainty on any other material which involves its use. The conception of education as the process of mind-training, besides laying too great stress on the intellectual aspect of mind, was and is almost inevitably tied

to this "faculty psychology" and to the theory of formal training, and leads to the framing, or more frequently to the defending, of a curriculum which consists of subjects specially capable, so it is supposed, of affording the required amount of discipline for each faculty. Thus an inordinate stress is put upon arithmetic, and far too much time allotted to it, because it is thought that a thorough training in that subject will enable the pupil to deal effectively with all other problems involving the use of this "reasoning faculty."

The child of ten is still plagued and worried with the abstractions of grammar, because that subject is regarded as "the logic of the Elementary School," and as capable of putting a fine edge upon the reasoning power. Mind-training is made to appear analogous with knife-sharpening; in the latter case, when sharpened, the knife will cut anything of a certain degree of hardness; similarly, it is argued that the mind, when trained to reason in grammar, will be able to reason wherever reasoning is required. The fact is overlooked that the mind behaves quite differently from the knife; the former absorbs and becomes one with the material which is used to train it, as the knife does not with the sharpening instrument.

If we can rid ourselves of the fallacy of formal training, which compels the learning of Latin grammar because it is a fine mental gymnastic, or of botany because of its value as a means of disciplining and enlarging the powers of observation, or of mathematics because of their value in training accuracy and reasoning power, it will be possible to view the field of suggested studies from a truer and simpler point of view. Ignoring formal values, we shall be able to consider the values of the different kinds of specific knowledge and power from a saner and more fruitful point of view.

The subject-matter of instruction should be selected

without any regard for this incorrect theory. When, on grounds to be considered, the material has been selected, the teacher should use his art to connect and vitalise the various facts in such a way as to secure the greatest amount of training possible.

An even more subtle form of error is to be discovered in the method of choosing curricula employed by many who start out with one of the truest and highest conceptions of education. They pose the problem thus: The ultimate aim of education is ethical, the formation of character; we have therefore to discover which branches of knowledge have greatest possibilities in this direction. Those are the branches to select first and foremost for the pupil's study; those are the subjects to emphasise throughout his school life. Other matters are of minor importance; they must therefore be scantily treated or even omitted.

Now, if the problem were as simple as this, these well-meaning people would be justified. But it is not, and the enlightened views of psychologists and educationists, together with the less enlightened tendencies of a materialistic generation, are combining to thwart the application of such ideas to education.

Both those who hold this view and those who oppose it consider that the function of the school is to form good men and women, possessed of strong wills to good. In the case of the former this has resulted in giving a large place in the curriculum to the humanities, and particularly to biblical, literary, and historical studies. The Herbartians, for example, have done this. Supporting their action by means of a psychological theory of doubtful validity with regard to the motivation of ideas, they have tended to attach far too great a value to the cultivation of thought and too little to that of action. This error is, however, not to be discovered in their conception of the aim of

education, but in their illogical deduction from that conception.

What is character? A thousand different answers would be given to this question by a thousand individuals. Some would say that it involves the possession of deep religious convictions applied to behaviour; others would prefer to signalise strength of will, others sympathy. And so the original and simple demand for the training of character becomes an obscure and pious wish for something almost indefinable. It is impossible to discuss here more than the fringe of the question. We will attempt to find merely a few important points of agreement. The man of character must be possessed of ideals which he is always struggling courageously to attain; his will to attain is strong. These ideals must be of an enlightened kind; no narrow-minded or bigoted man can be regarded as possessing a desirable or complete character. It is true that, speaking loosely, we often allude even to a bigot or a man of very limited knowledge and capacity as a man of character, but it would be admitted, I think, that this is an unwarrantable use of the term; we are really thinking chiefly of determination of character rather than of full character. We may feel admiration for one noble quality of an individual, but we do not therefore admire the whole character; we may even recognise and lament unmistakable weaknesses and twists in the same person. The ideal character which the educationist has as his aim is one which is not radically lacking in any direction; one marked by sanity, width of view, steadfastness of purpose, ideality and sympathy applied in general to all life's many-sided activities. Character must not be envisaged as a part, because it is a whole; the strong-willed, industrious or persevering, methodical, æsthetic, artistic, and even really pious man is so characterised with reference to his most prominent qualities, and may hide many serious defects.

When the educationist, therefore, speaks of character-formation, he is concerned with something far wider than any specially prominent quality; he is concerned with the whole man. In other words, he aims at a well-balanced and harmonious whole.

The two applications we wish to make of this view of character are tolerably clear. In the first place, no merely linguistic, or mathematical, or scientific, or even religious training, however inspired, can produce character in the true sense. Each will, when employed alone, or when unduly overweighting other elements of training, produce a one-sided and therefore incomplete character. A "whole" character is formed by a training of the widest kind, and he who hopes to do it by means of a linguistic or mathematical or religious training is indulging in the same fond dream that leads the formal trainer to trust to grammar or mathematics to produce a general power of thought. In the second place, no one single fine quality can be fully produced by training on one special material; industry enforced or even induced in one direction may appear in no other; patriotism fed on history, as the English Public School in the past has often understood it, may teach a man how to die, but scarcely how to live for his country's good.

Character-training, to achieve its purpose, must go on in every branch of study. Omit or over-emphasise one important branch of knowledge or power, and narrowness results. The boy or girl who has never properly envisaged the accuracy and certainty of mathematical truth has missed a valuable character-forming ideal. The child who has not been led through some study of the physical world to a love of Nature has missed much which would have enriched his character.

Our investigation into the reasons underlying the choice of studies has disclosed two views, one of which is contrary

to fact, and the other constantly misunderstood. Both are children of one parent—that is, they both arise from the assumption that the mind consists of a comparatively small number of separate faculties, such as imagination, reason, memory, and others, and that these faculties may be trained in some specific and suitable material for general use. The theory of formal training in its crude form is false; the theory that character-formation is the ultimate aim of education is true, but cannot be successfully applied on formal-training lines. An examination of both views leads us to conclude that no successful training can take place unless by means of the curriculum all the great aspects of life are faithfully placed before the pupil. In a wide curriculum lies the only hope of producing a man or woman of general mental power and of real character.

Of the two conceptions, one psychological and the other ethical, the former was found to be a false guide, the latter a guide capable of giving, like the Pole star, the general directions only. With eyes upon the Pole star it is possible to maintain the general direction, but it will still be necessary to pick the road, to decide which is the proper path up the mountain, where the river ford is to be found. In the same way, the establishment of the aim of education as ethical is of fundamental importance, but cannot settle questions of material except in a most general fashion.

The problem of the curriculum begins to assume a more concrete and practical form when the social aspect of character is strongly emphasised. The school then appears as the servant and minister of the community, and education as that which fits a pupil to take up his functions in the service of the society in which he lives.

A valuable aspect of the educational aim is here revealed. Character has been too often regarded as a purely

personal concern; modern thinkers, especially American, have come to recognise that this is only a one-sided view. The influence of social environment upon the character and the reaction of character upon the social environment are facts which should receive consideration commensurate with their importance. Extremists have doubtless over-emphasised these facts, and in doing so have, in the writer's view, fallen into various practical errors.

There are obvious dangers in subordinating the individual to the needs and aims of the community. The theory may be construed as an acceptance of the claim of the State to exercise complete control over what shall and shall not be taught. The dangers of such direction in the hands of an autocratic State are evident; in a democratic country, where the citizens elect their governors, such dangers are less evident, but they none the less exist. The people's representatives are rarely elected on purely educational questions; never yet in our own nation's history has such a question decided, nor even materially influenced, an election. Hence on matters concerning education a Government may hold opinions and act upon them in complete opposition to the views and will of the electorate. Real education helps to develop individuality, and strong individuality sometimes appears to run counter to the interests of the community as a whole. It is in the curriculum that the State finds a most powerful ally in stereotyping thought and custom by suppressing originality and initiative; in the name of the common good obsolete and harmful elements are confirmed and true social efficiency diminished.

There is, moreover, in each individual both a social and a personal self—a side that he may and does expose to public view, and a side which he reserves for himself and a few others. This deeper and more intimate self would reveal tastes and sympathies, aspirations and ideals, ideas

upon life and death—in fact, a side of the human being which concerns the individual far more than the community—and these, especially in an Englishman, are regarded as private and sacred. While these personal elements would almost certainly never have made their quiet way into being without the influence of society, they nevertheless remain the individual's peculiar possession, and any view of education is inadequate which, like that under consideration, tends to underrate or ignore their importance. The aim of social efficiency requires widening by the inclusion of the idea of individual or personal sufficiency.

From such a view of education as the preceding, which lays stress upon the value of the individual to the community, it may seem a far cry to that which emphasises the individual's own material success. And yet the two views may not be contrary; they may on examination be found to be complementary; only their extremes may be directly opposed.

In the minds of the extremists education is conceived as the instrument by means of which the individual earns his livelihood or makes his way in the world among a host of competitors. Nations, as well as parents, sometimes take the same view, and educational plans are then made with a view to gaining a superior position in the international struggle for commercial supremacy. Probably this is the most common view taken when judging of the value or merits of a curriculum; it is the view of "the man in the street." Is this or that subject useful? is asked. The utilitarian aspect of the curriculum is one that appeals to the ordinary, commonplace, practical person who wishes to see children receive instruction which can be put at once to a practical use. He will have nothing to do with ornamental, conventional studies, or with so-called accomplish-

ments. The majority of the people of Europe and America still regard education in this way.

One great difficulty connected with this view is to know what is meant by the term "useful." Most advocates of a utilitarian education think of it in terms of bread-and-butter, and hold that only that is useful which subserves the aim of gaining a livelihood. These people are generally blind to the fact that many studies which, superficially examined, appear to have no value of this kind, do really contribute to material success. At first sight the reading and memorising of good prose and poetry may seem useless for life's practical purposes, and yet such studies may effect great improvement in the powers of speech, and this in its turn may prove a great advantage in the struggle to earn a livelihood. Thus, too narrow a view of utility may defeat the aim we set out to achieve. But there is a far greater danger inherent in this narrow view than that of merely failing to obtain a good livelihood. It takes little or no account of the spiritual; it looks only at the material. For the inner life, for the development of the man's individuality and of his higher nature, it seems to suggest nothing. We cannot be satisfied with such a limited conception of life.

Herbert Spencer combined the two ideals of individual and social efficiency, and his view of "utility" was therefor a wider one. He extended its scope to include all the fundamental activities of life. These he classified in the order of their importance as activities employed in direct self-preservation, in indirect self-preservation or the gaining of a livelihood, in rearing a family, in performing the duties of a citizen, and in making use of leisure. Instruction which bore directly on these points he regarded as useful. Subject-matter which did not bear directly on them he regarded as useless. As a sequence from this broader notion of "utility," Spencer put forward the

paramount claims of science, claims which he failed on the whole to substantiate.

Both conceptions of education as a training for purely individual or for purely social efficiency fail to satisfy; but even when the narrower meaning is attached, they have been, and still are, of considerable service in ensuring that school studies shall be of a practical kind, bearing directly upon the life lived by the scholars and upon their future activities. We cannot afford to look altogether contemptuously upon such serviceable guides.

Each of the theories which has been considered presents a partial view of the aims of the school. Each, when held by persons of broad and liberal ideas, escapes most of the criticism levelled against it; and each, held by normal ordinary people, tends to lay an unwarrantable stress on some one aspect. Each contains a great deal of truth. Together they give a fairly complete view of what education should seek to do. If, therefore, we are to obtain any guidance in deciding upon curricula from a conception of educational aims, it will be necessary to take these aims as a whole into consideration.

Two points appear to stand out clearly as a result of our analysis. In the first place, all the theories suggest the necessity of a wide and liberal curriculum, and in the second place, all seem to assume that the child is to be taught what his educators hold to be good for him.

First, all the theories suggest the need of a wide and liberal curriculum. Now that it is known that mental power gained by practice on specific material may be, and usually is, confined within the limits of that specific material, or is usable but little beyond it, the conclusion is inevitable that no one or two special subjects can be allowed to monopolise the school curriculum. If powers, largely confined in their application to the problems upon

which they were trained, are to become available in the general life of the pupil, he must at school be made familiar with the *general* experiences of mankind. No great phase of human culture may be unrepresented in the curriculum.

It has already been seen that character, using the term in its proper sense, involves width—that, ideally, it involves knowledge of a wide kind, moral power, and a large number of qualities only acquired by coming into contact with many sides of life. School and life both take as their ideal the well-balanced character, and one of the many conditions under which such a character may grow is that the experiences of school life shall be many-sided and typical of real life. Moreover, it has been shown that no one quality of character, such as industry or patriotism, can develop in its best form except when it finds constant stimulus from, and application in, all the more typical situations of life. The quality of industry, for example, may first show itself in one particular corner of school experience, but requires for its proper growth opportunities of exercise in many other departments of experience. Only a wide and liberal curriculum can supply these opportunities. Thus, from whatever legitimate point of view we look at character, we find it to a great degree dependent for its growth upon wide experience, and we are driven to the conclusion that the school curriculum must present the accumulated and representative experiences of mankind.

If the conception of education as the instrument for producing social efficiency be considered, the same conclusion follows. The ideal citizen must be conversant, according to his capacity, with the culture of his time; the citizen whose sole school education has consisted of the three R's or of the classical languages cannot adequately use his opportunities as a useful member of society. One

of the great agencies by which a wide outlook upon life is developed is the curriculum, and lack of width in it cannot be compensated by "training," however expert and specialised it may be. To act their various parts in life, ordinary persons must learn them.

The theory of utility leads to the same conclusion. The interconnectedness of knowledge is becoming more and more evident; no so-called useful subject-matter can be properly grasped without a knowledge and an understanding of matters that at first seem quite remote from it. A wide curriculum is again found to be the condition of securing even bread-and-butter aims.

The second point suggested by our examination of educational aims is that the whole problem is being looked at, not from the child's point of view, but from that of the adult. "You shall eat what is good for you," the parent says, and the teacher imitates him by saying, "You shall learn what is good for you," and too often the good is of a medicinal rather than a savoury quality.

There are clearly two factors involved in the problem, namely, the environment—human and material—and the child. Sometimes the theorist has concentrated his attention upon the environment, and has failed to take into account the knowledge, capacities, interests, and needs of the child; the result has been seen in a curriculum which has no organic connection with child life. Sometimes the theorist has directed all his attention to the nature of the child—his interests, purposes, spontaneous activities—and has neglected to do justice to the environment and the pressing need for adaptation to its modern complexities; here the effect is seen in a curriculum characterised by lack of system, an unordered scheme of work corresponding with the children's transitory desires and purposes, one incapable of natural development into the pursuits and purposes of adult life. As Professor Dewey says, "If we

isolate the children's present inclinations, purposes, and experiences from the place they occupy and the part they have to perform in a developing experience, all stand on the same level; all alike are equally good and equally bad."[1]

The error of emphasising the environment is generally made by those who have never taught children; thus, outside the profession there is a reiterated demand for instruction of a practical kind which shall enable the boy or girl leaving school at fourteen to adapt himself or herself easily to the occupations of industrial and commercial life. Some employers and business men ask that the pupil shall come to them provided with certain fundamental knowledge; others that he should possess, not knowledge, but fundamental powers of thinking. There is some reason in the first demand, for the schools do not always teach fundamentals, and it is reasonable to ask that they should. In the second demand there is less reason, for the teacher cannot provide intelligence, nor can intelligence be cultivated *in vacuo*. It may be, however, that the business man has put his finger upon a grave fault of our school work—it is often impractical and remote from real life.

The error of over-emphasising the child's nature—his spontaneous activities, non-permanent interests, and purposes—in its bearing on the planning of school curricula is generally confined to educationists. At its worst it is as if the teacher should ask his pupils what they would like to learn or do, and, having obtained the interesting information, should call it the curriculum. The Tolstoyan school was an example of this concentration upon the child-nature, to the detriment of the other factor.

It is clear that both environment and child must be

[1] Dewey, "The School and the Child," p. 28, edited by J. J. Findlay. Blackie and Son.

adequately considered. The problem of giving each factor proper consideration is not really a double one, any more than is a problem in arithmetic which contains two pieces of data, and it is scarcely a reasonable way of regarding the matter to pose the question as to which factor requirés the greater consideration. The knowledge and activities of adult life have their roots in the knowledge and activities of child life, and these, again, in the instincts of infant life. There is a continuous line of development from the earliest forms of mental life and its expression to the thoughts and pursuits of the man or woman. This is far from saying that every infantile instinct, every childish tendency, purpose, desire, or activity, is of value educationally and can be made to develop into some form of complete living. Some are the creatures of a day and quickly perish. The development of the race shows the same characteristics—*i.e.*, impulses and movements indicative of momentary interests, purposeless activities, and transitorily felt needs which did not lie in the line of progress. Hence it is essential to distinguish between the infinitely varying expressions of child thought, desire, and impulse. Some are the growing points of the plant, others are only withering bracts.

The task is therefore to discover what are the fundamentals of knowledge and power which every English boy and girl needs for the purpose of coping efficiently with the common experiences of life, whether of a private or public nature. Then we have to discover the germs of these fundamentals in the instinctive curiosities and activities of the child, the moments when they make their appearance and when they ripen.

Attempts have repeatedly been made to ascertain what are the fundamentals of our present culture, and the moments when the child is himself ready to enter upon successive stages of his inheritance. Almost every educa-

tionist of recent times has concerned himself with this problem, but until it is attacked in a co-operative way no solution will be forthcoming. The work is so immense that no individual can attempt it with any hope of success; hence the common-sense alternative appears to be that the experience and knowledge of the most expert and experienced representatives of present national culture should now be made use of for this purpose.

The teaching profession has not until recent years been sufficiently organised to be capable of undertaking this work. To-day it is, and with the aid of psychologists, local and central educational advisers, and representatives of the most important social, industrial, and business activities of the community, could produce an approximately satisfactorily solution of the enigma which has baffled the best minds of all times, and which to-day greatly diminishes the effectiveness of school education. Teachers would naturally exert the preponderating influence in such a council.

Experience and theory based on research afford such a body of experts one general guidance in their task. It has now been definitely established that the sources of the child's future knowledge and power lie in his spontaneous activities; that the foundations of abstract thought are to be found in his childish interests and purposes expressed in acts. The most primitive forms of mental life, with its threefold aspect of cognition, feeling, and conation, are the instincts, and these utter themselves in movement of some kind. In the manifold forms of expression we shall find the germs of complete living, the fundamentals of present culture. In planning the curriculum, therefore, this root principle will be in constant evidence and will be constantly applied. At present it is recognised as vital in framing the scheme of work for infants and mental defectives; as the age of the child increases the principle tends

to fall into disuse. Thus only can we account for the break in continuity between the education of the infant and that of older children. In the latter it shows a tendency towards bookishness and lecturing, and the pupils, conscious that their school studies do not touch their lives at vital points, lose interest and hope.

CHAPTER V

THE CURRICULUM—ELEMENTARY

Every child has the right to an education which at least supplies him with a minimum of the cultural elements which constitute the inheritance of his race. These elements exist in germ in him, and show their presence at different stages in his development. Hence the special duty of the educationist and psychologist is to study the developing mind of the child by means of the indications afforded by the various forms of expression, and so discover the appropriate moment for presenting to him new aspects of the environmental facts and processes. The child will indicate, directly or indirectly, which of the typical aspects he is ready to assimilate, and how he can most easily do so.

The necessity for this study of the child is becoming more and more apparent. Much valuable work has already been done, but the field is so vast that it is no exaggeration to say that the work is scarcely begun. Now and then some explorer into the unknown—a Montessori or a Stanley Hall—discovers hitherto hidden phases of child nature, and thereby suggests new possibilities in education. The ordinary teacher is not exempt from the same necessity; he too must constantly explore the minds he deals with in order to know what and how he shall teach. He may not be called upon to lay down the minimum requirements, but he cannot teach these intelligently and sympathetically unless he understands the principles and facts which have led to their selection; moreover, he has constantly to decide what he shall teach, for a

minimum curriculum can never do more than suggest the outlines of the matter of instruction.

Certain facts of child life have been ascertained, and we shall now briefly indicate them for the purpose of guidance in building up a scientific curriculum. At about three years of age the normal child can walk, talk, and in general comport himself like a miniature human being; he is no longer a baby, but an infant, and the State ordains that he *may* enter upon school life. When he gives signs of readiness to pass from primary to secondary interests —from seeing and hearing things to reading about them, from saying things to writing about them—when he can attempt to do these things without injury to eye or hand, to sit at such work in desks for somewhat prolonged periods without detriment to his body, he is no longer an infant. This period is reached ordinarily between the sixth and seventh year, and this moment will therefore be chosen for placing him in that section of the school where these tendencies can be afforded proper scope. None the less, we have to guard against the idea that this period witnesses anything like a complete break in the little human being's development. It is certainly a great change, but it is a change which has been slowly taking place long before it is visible, and will not be complete for years after it has appeared. Too often the period is treated as if it were a real moment of time, which, when passed, presents us with a quite different individual, resembling in intelligence and capacity the youthful figure of Christ in so many of the old masters' pictures of "The Madonna and Child."

At the very beginning of life the human being comes into direct contact with the world of sense. Through the medium of his sensations he at once begins to gain first-hand concrete experience. He opens his eyes and sees

what his quite undeveloped mind allows him to see; he hears something, he knows not what; he touches himself and other objects, and is more or less aware of change. Until other factors begin to play their part, the world is to him as Professor James suggests, "a big, blooming, buzzing confusion." None the less, it is first-hand experience, and the foundation of all future knowledge.

From the very beginning of life, too, the human being reacts upon his sense experiences. Contact of the hand with an object brings about an instinctive movement of clutching, and the baby fingers close around it. The muscles of the neck will presently turn the head in order to see and hear better; he will even learn to sniff in order to increase the intensity of odours. Without reaction to sensations there is no resulting perception. Psychologists and teachers are learning to attach increasing importance to this aspect of the mental life, and to perceive the vital necessity of combining reception with expression.

This receptive-reactive process is concerned at first with the immediate environment. When this has been exhausted, so far as the child mind is capable of exhausting its almost infinite variety, the remoter environment exercises its attractive force. At a certain well-marked stage, too, the power of speech comes, and widens the child's horizon far beyond the narrow circle created by the senses.

In the education of the infant we shall follow the lead thus given by himself. Man, Nature, and the common objects used in the school, and in the household we shall employ as the material for his observation—at first the more striking flowers and animals and human beings around him, and then, as speech develops, the second-hand material found in literary and historical stories and in tales of the little people of other lands. From amongst this subject-matter he will also develop his first feelings for beauty.

At first it will be necessary, in following the guidance of Nature, to encourage the reactions of the larger muscles. The infant will spend a very large part of his school time in free play and in games, in tumbling, crawling, running, and dancing; gradually he will bring his smaller muscles into play, achieving finer adjustments. He will therefore be given opportunities of handling and of carrying, of performing useful activities with common utensils and small furniture. He will be introduced to games which require some hand dexterity; he will draw, paint, and model. At the same time he will, in story-telling, in dramatisation, recitation and singing, satisfy his craving for expression through speech and gesture.

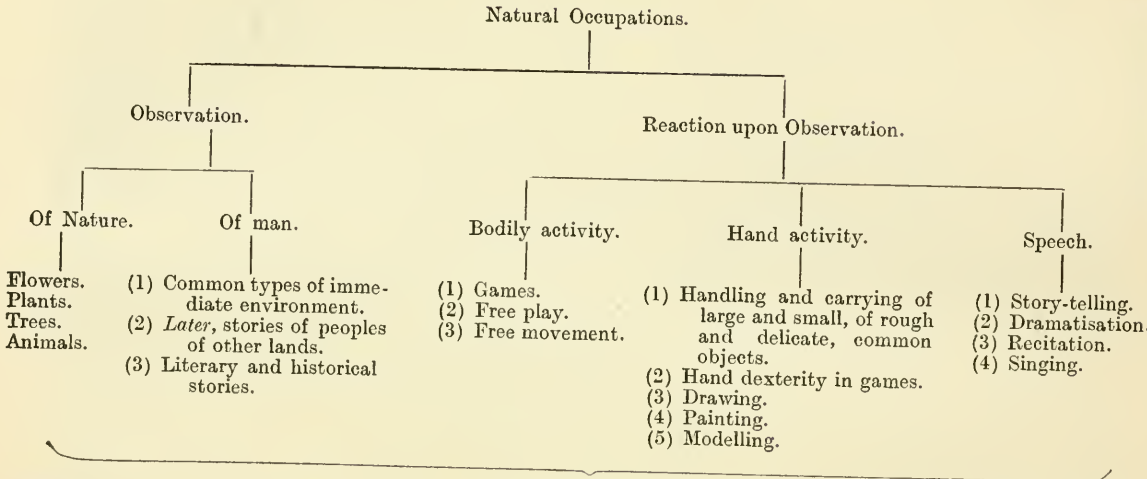
So far—that is, up to about the age of six or six and a half—the child has given no sign that he desires to imitate his older friends, who, even to his infantile understanding, appear to be getting interesting information out of books by reading. The concrete environment has absorbed all his attention. Reading is a non-natural activity, and in spite of the often wonderful success achieved by Madame Montessori in teaching Italian children to read and write their own language at a very early age, English, German, French, and American educationists are becoming more and more convinced that such work should not be begun before six years of age. Apart from Madame Montessori's own genius as a teacher, it may be that the phonetic nature of the Italian language and the quickly ripening powers of the Italian child constitute conditions which distinguish the Italian problem from our own. Speech must first become certain, and the understanding of speech. There is no need to hurry; the process of learning to read is beset with so many difficulties that unless the psychological moment is seized upon and a method employed which grows out of the child's mental attitude, the power will be acquired in opposition to his

natural tendencies. Writing and reading are naturally taught together; it is therefore suggested that both should be entirely excluded from the period of infancy. We would, indeed, choose this moment of transition from the natural to the symbolic to mark the end of infancy.

The comprehension of number is in quite a different category. Without any interference on the part of the teacher, children pick up ideas of number. They gain elementary notions of size, weight, length, distance and shape, in passing from one object to another, in carrying and handling; games and occupations lead naturally to the earliest ideas of arithmetic and geometry. Apart, however, from their games and occupations, infants have no interest in number; hence whatever work of this kind is undertaken will have to be incidental.

We may therefore summarise the school curriculum for infants in the manner shown on p. 80.

After infancy the body and the mind undergo further changes, which, if thoroughly understood, serve to guide the educator in the choice of studies. Between the ages of six and a half and nine, the same impulses of imitation and play, the same instinct of curiosity and love of imagery, carry the child farther along the road to knowledge and power. The ability to direct and control his movements increases; he is no longer content with mere activity, but demands definite results; he desires to improve his power. He begins to envisage a wider environment, and, his power of concentrating attention augmenting, he sees more of the details of objects. Experiments go to show that the child of this age regards objects very largely from the point of view of their use or of the activity that can be exerted upon them; he is chiefly interested in the dynamic qualities of things. He is still an individualist, although less so than during the period of infancy; thus group work and group games naturally begin to



Derived from above: (1) Elementary notions of comparative sizes, weights, lengths, distances, shapes; (2) habits of order, cleanliness.

appear, and will play a constantly growing part in his education. Summing up briefly, we may say that during this period the teacher will continue to direct his efforts towards the training of the senses, of the motor powers, of expression, and of memory, and will take care not to demand more thought than is natural at this stage.

From the age of nine to the period of puberty reason begins to exercise a preponderating influence. Mathematical and logical sequences are followed less for the practical result and more for the interest in the process. This development of the reasoning powers proceeds more and more rapidly until the later adolescent period, when the whole universe may become the field of thought. During the pre-adolescent period, however, we shall not expect to see this fruition; reason will be intermixed with unreason and mere imitation, the latter, however, now being the result less of perception than of conception. The collecting instinct appears and produces activities which may become of educational value. The group spirit, too, with all the social development it entails, becomes more and more marked; football and cricket and co-operative school work are expressions of it, and these often form backgrounds for the still concrete ideals of the period.

The facts just noted will decide what elements of general culture shall comprise the minimum fundamentals of the curriculum between infancy and adolescence. We have in these facts indications as to the nature and complexity of the items, of the order in which these should be presented, and even of the methods by which they can best be taught. The widening social life of the child, the abating influence of the immediate environment, and his propensity to imitate adult activities, lead naturally to instruction in the arts of reading and writing. Specially expert and sympathetic teachers have proved beyond doubt that the teaching of these symbolic arts can, by following

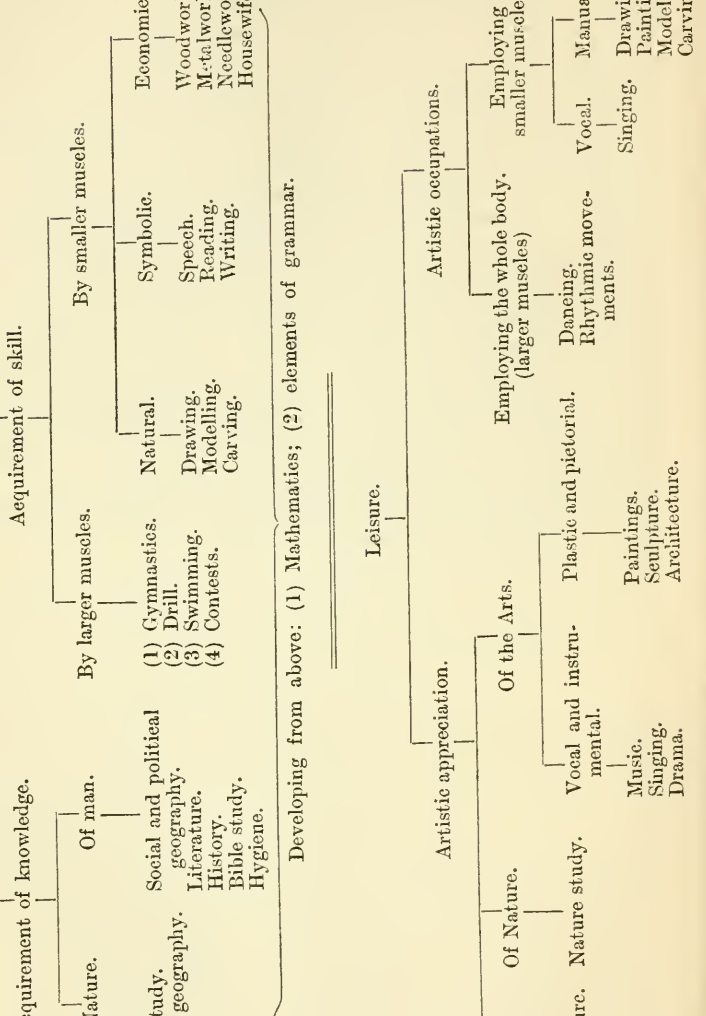
closely the line of the child's interests, become a natural and therefore a pleasant process. First and second hand observational work—*i.e.*, direct observation and acquirement of knowledge through the medium of speech and books—undergoes expansion into Nature-study, which develops on the one side into what is known as physical geography, and on the other into the deeper study of man, this taking the forms of political and social geography, literature, history, Bible-study, and hygiene. Practical arithmetic and practical geometry—the latter much neglected in the schools—will be carried a stage farther, the material corresponding with the perceivable environment.

A word of warning seems necessary with regard to the teaching of arithmetic. Every child feels a need for the power of calculating, and so long as we do not exaggerate the importance of arithmetic beyond the practical necessities of the actual and foreshadowed life of the child, all will be well. But owing to the prevalent misconception as to its value in affording general logical training, a misconception which was formerly shared by educational administrators and expressed by grants paid upon the three R's, it still occupies a far too prominent position in the curriculum of the Elementary School.

With increasing strength the child's reactions will be given opportunities of development in drill and gymnastics and in swimming; individual and group contests will demonstrate the growth of, and will help to develop, the personal and the social self. The smaller muscles will find natural training in drawing, modelling, and carving; woodwork, and later on metalwork, needlework, and housewifery, will be gradually introduced as common and important elements of communal life. Occupations undertaken, not merely from utilitarian motives, but for pure enjoyment, will fill a not unimportant place. Artistic

appreciation and artistic occupations depend so largely upon each other and form together such a valuable and cherished part of the human inheritance that the school cannot afford to ignore either. A very wide choice will be offered in order to give free scope for individual preferences and tastes; one child will enjoy one thing greatly, another some other; most will find some joy in all. The larger muscles will therefore be exercised in dancing and rhythmic movements; the smaller in drawing, painting, modelling, and carving; the voice in singing. In an atmosphere of freedom and enjoyment, the seeds of appreciation possessed by every normal child may grow and finally blossom into appreciation of natural beauty, the beauty of literature, music, song, pictures, and architecture. The world is full of beauty; it is therefore only necessary to clear away as far as is possible the barrier between the school and the world.

The scheme of fundamentals may be summarised as in the following table (p. 84).


Work.
Acquirement of knowledge.
Of Nature.
Nature study.
Physical geography.
Of man.
Social and political geography.
Literature.
History.
Bible study.
Hygiene.
Acquirement of skill.
By larger muscles.
(1) Gymnastics.
(2) Drill.
(3) Swimming.
(4) Contests.
By smaller muscles.
Natural.
Drawing.
Modelling.
Carving.
Symbolic.
Speech.
Reading.
Writing.
Economic.
Woodwork.
Metalwork.
Needlework.
Housewifery.
Developing from above: (1) Mathematics; (2) elements of grammar.
Leisure.
Artistic appreciation.
Of man.
Literature.
Of Nature.
Nature study.
Of the Arts.
Vocal and instrumental.
Music.
Singing.
Drama.
Plastic and pictorial.
Paintings.
Sculpture.
Architecture.
Artistic occupations.
Employing the whole body. (larger muscles)
Dancing.
Rhythmic movements.
Employing smaller muscles.
Vocal.
Singing.
Manual.
Drawing.
Painting.
Modelling.
Carving, etc.

CHAPTER VI

THE FLEXIBLE CURRICULUM

A VERY reasonable demand is often made that the curriculum should be flexible, and the assumption underlying this demand is that schools and scholars have varying needs. The rural school, it is said, must be treated quite differently from the town school; the slum school from the "respectable" suburban school; the school of a manufacturing from that of a commercial or agricultural community. Based on the same idea, the assertion is made that the poor scholar must have a different curriculum from his better-class neighbour; that the child who will leave school for work directly he is permitted by the Education Authority has educational needs of a kind differing from those of the child who will remain at school until nearly fifteen, or will pass into some higher type of educational institution. The problem we have to face, therefore, is that of determining to what extent the principles governing the choice of the subject-matter of instruction and their applications should be modified as a result of these differences between various types of schools and scholars.

There is little doubt that flexibility in the curriculum is essential if we are to respond successfully to the needs of differing individuals and communities. There is no special and complete diet which may be forced upon all, irrespective of nature or environment.

Little danger exists at present that we shall attempt to do this. In no country in the world has such infinite variety been permitted as in our own. Every type of school has framed its own home-made curriculum, and

nearly every single school has used its liberty similarly. Each head-teacher draws up his own curriculum in harmony with his own general views on education, the particular needs of the locality and school, the special capacity of his staff, and, naturally, his own idiosyncrasies. If possessed of an active or creative mind, he may introduce "new ideas," good or bad; if uncreative, he may content himself with the syllabuses inherited from his predecessors. Under existing conditions of almost complete freedom we appear to have reached the extreme of flexibility and variety.

But the broad outlines of knowledge and the general activities of mankind do not greatly vary in the course of a few years or within the geographical limits of our common country. Since physical science entered on its real heritage, scientific principles have undergone but little change. The instincts, needs, and occupations of children and adults have not appreciably deviated from ancient paths; they could be stated to-day in general terms in language almost identical with that of much earlier times in the world's history. In his essential nature and demands upon life the town child differs very little from the rural child; every English child, whatever his local environment, has the same general cultural needs.

To illustrate the point, let us take a possible item of the school material of instruction—the generation and use of electric power. A normal city child takes a natural interest in the tram, and is curious to know by what means it is propelled. Another child from a different environment has never seen a tram, but desires to understand how the motor-car or army lorry passes so swiftly through his village. Another wishes to know how the electric light in his school works. Although each pupil will start his enquiries from a different point, they do not require a different science syllabus; all three have to master the

same principles, and the experienced teacher makes use of tram or car or light merely as illustrations; in fact, these are part of his *method* of teaching an important item of the curriculum.

Hence it is wrong to lay too great stress upon changing or varying conditions of life; they must, it is true, be taken into consideration, but the fundamental part of the curriculum will remain much the same; stability will be its essential characteristic. The flexibility so often recommended for the curriculum is much more in place as a characteristic of the *method* of teaching.

We may obtain confirmation of this view from the further consideration that, in seeking to bring *all* our scholars into vital relations with the fundamental elements of general English culture, we shall find it necessary to include and even lay stress upon elements which the immediate environment fails to provide. Thus, while the immediate environment of the rural child will suggest illustrations and special methods of exposition, a curriculum will be needed in which the elements of life outside the rural areas definitely appear. In this way there is no real opposition between two apparently contradictory recommendations—viz., that the pupil should be led to take interest in and see more deeply into his familiar surroundings, and that he should find in the school curriculum some compensation for the absence of certain fundamental sides of local life. The same principle applies in the case of the town scholar. The school must do all it can to fill in the blanks in the experiences of the children of slum schools, and the curriculum of such schools will differ somewhat from that of schools attended by more fortunate children. The same historical, geographical, arithmetical, and other material will, with a few necessary modifications, be presented, but it will be the methods of presentation, and not the curriculum itself, which will show the

greater differences. These two classes of scholars cannot be appealed to in the same way; the familiar objects and experiences of the one cannot be used with the other class for illustrating the principles taught. Each will apperceive the fundamentals of general life in a way conditioned by his past experience, and it is the function of the teacher's *method* to render this apperception possible and easy.

It is true that the children of the poor, owing to disadvantageous conditions of life, are usually somewhat "behind" children living under more favourable conditions in attainments and capacity. But the solution of this difficulty is to be found chiefly in small variations of the curriculum, in differing rates of promotion, and in the introduction of suitable methods of teaching. The handwork which is generally given in larger quantities to poorer children should be not so much new or different work as the vehicle of a new and more suitable method of teaching the same subject-matter. The same geography, arithmetic, and history, with slight modifications in detail, will be presented to children suffering from poverty and its resulting disabilities as to the others, but will be treated in a more concrete way through the medium of handwork.

The present practice of each head-teacher making his own curriculum results, apart from its imperfections as the work of an individual, in many obvious disadvantages. There is no means of easily determining what kind and amount of knowledge a child transferred from another school should or even does possess. If an attempt is made to discover this by means of fathoming his knowledge of number, it will be found that the order in which the elementary principles of arithmetic have been taught varies so greatly in different schools as to make such an enquiry difficult for the teacher and unfair to the child. At ten

or eleven years of age he may or may not have learned how to deal with easy vulgar and decimal fractions; he may or may not know what "percentage" or "average" or "proportion" or "ratio" signifies. If also we consider what very large numbers of children move from one school to another, it will be clear that the amount of time and energy wasted in adjustment to different curricula must be immense. It is unfair to the child and the teacher that this adjustment should be made so difficult. Moreover, the great diversity in the syllabuses of different schools entails an educational disadvantage in that large numbers of children are bound to miss some of the fundamentals on which more advanced knowledge and power are built up; many an Elementary scholar on leaving school has never learned anything concerning long periods of history or important countries of the world. It is not easy to measure the amount of harm done by this lack of system, miscalled freedom.

Everything points to the necessity of dealing with the question of curricula on national and organised lines—not by stereotyping it in details, not by destroying its flexibility, but by bringing to bear upon it the expert knowledge gained by scientific study and experience of the best minds of the profession.

Although the teacher's right to plan his own work is now widely recognised, suggestions are made from time to time that school curricula should be "standardised."[1] Such proposals have met with considerable opposition, and have been regarded as a reversion to the old and bad times when the State imposed the scheme of work in detail, relentlessly crushing out initiative and possibility of progress. There is, however, still a fairly numerous body of

[1] It has only recently been proposed by certain head-teachers of the London Elementary Schools that the Council should lay down a definite standard syllabus in arithmetic.

teachers who hunger for the flesh-pots, who wish for the return of the times when they had a definite and unambiguous syllabus to work from.

The suggestion to standardise the curriculum is calculated to arouse the opposition of all possessed by a love of freedom and a sense of its indispensability in human endeavour. No man enchained by arbitrarily imposed rules can express himself worthily in an art. Better confusion with freedom than system with enslavement. Standardisation often covers a system of slavery—a system in which individual initiative has no place, in which enthusiasm is bound to perish, and in which the humanising activities of the teacher become little more than the revolutions of the wheels of a machine. If standardisation means, as it usually does, the framing of a common curriculum in which there is no place for variety, for personal powers, gifts, and enthusiasms, then the little knowledge we possess of the springs of human endeavour forbids us to have anything to do with it.

Owing to its historical associations, "standardisation" contains nearly always a suggestion of very cheap articles manufactured almost without the agency of human hands and to one specified pattern. No doubt the idea occurs to most teachers that these articles and soulless machines are symbolic of what the externally imposed codes of the last quarter of the nineteenth century tried hard to produce out of pupils and teachers. To that condition of things the schools can never again revert.

The demand for a "homogeneous" curriculum may mean the same thing. Neither term—neither "standardisation" nor "homogeneous," as usually used—is capable of meaning anything which can be regarded as educationally sound.

Herbert Spencer's dictum that "Education must prepare for complete living," however wrongly he interpreted

its application, still indicates most nearly the direction our efforts as teachers should follow. Most recent writers on education have adopted his view. Now, the life which every child is living and will live is life in a society. He therefore needs preparation for life as an individual and for life as a member of a community. To play his part as a social unit he must in himself mirror the society in which he lives; he must be acquainted with its history and traditions, its institutions and literature, its activities, inventions, and knowledge. This is, of course, only another way of saying that he must adapt himself to his environment, and we thus reach the threshold of our present difficulty with regard to the teacher's freedom in asserting that no fundamental part of this environment can be safely omitted.

Such an assertion, if correct, logically involves a curriculum which embraces the whole universe of knowledge and power—a demand which, without immense modifications, must appear ridiculous. For reasons to be found in ourselves and our pupils, we cannot teach everything, and common sense suggests that in selecting fundamentals consideration must be given to two measurable factors—their relative intrinsic values and the varying power of the pupil at different ages to grasp them. The needs and powers of the child become a mandate that he should be instructed in fundamentals, and that these fundamentals should be presented to him in the order in which his powers develop and render it possible for him to assimilate them. In place, therefore, of the present unsystematised curriculum, in place also of the proposed standardised or homogeneous curriculum, we propose to substitute a general minimum curriculum which includes at least the fundamental elements of human knowledge and powers.

In reality this is a plea for a liberal education. The acquirement of detailed knowledge in a special branch of

study cannot compensate for the non-acquirement of general fundamentals. Moreover, knowledge of a special subject, if it is to be living and practical, cannot be possessed in total or even partial isolation. A real knowledge of geography or of any other single subject involves a good fundamental knowledge of history, of mathematics and literature. It is, therefore, a matter not merely of expediency, but of necessity, that those facts which are fundamental in themselves and fundamental in their relation to any special subject should not be neglected.

The question as to who is to decide what elements are fundamental is not so difficult as at first sight appears. Teachers themselves should do this; not each head-teacher for his own school, as is now the case, but the whole body of teachers for the great mass of schools. The best men and women from the ranks of the teaching profession should be elected by the teachers, with power to co-opt inspectors, educationists, psychologists, and employers of labour. Such a body of experts, by placing its appropriate members in committees to deal with the various branches of human culture, might soon bring to a head the valuable work of this kind which has already been done. Full general meetings of the whole body of delegates would settle the final difficulties with regard to debatable relative intrinsic values.

It has been contended that even now, in the present anarchic condition of the curriculum, the head-teacher does not form his own curriculum in entire independence. He has a staff to aid him and an inspector to advise and even control him. But at the best we have here between nine and ten heads put together over a subject which has taxed, and is taxing, the best brains of every country.

Assume the possibility of a young and inexperienced or a lazy or too busy inspector, and the head-teacher's little conference loses one important member. Assume also a

staff which has only a few hours to give to these questions, and the head-teacher is left alone to grapple with the problem. Assume further that the head-teacher may be too old, too ignorant, or too lazy, and what can be said of the curriculum brought to birth under such conditions?

Some would perhaps contend that none of these possibilities hold good in their own case. They are capable, their staff is capable, and also willing, to give all the needed time, and the inspector is eminently capable or immensely tractable. It must, however, be conceded that these ideal conditions do not obtain everywhere. Where such advantages exist it seems only reasonable to ask that those enjoying them should by the means suggested give their advice and help to others less fortunately situated.

There appear to be two classes of opponents to the suggestion of a general minimum curriculum of fundamentals —those who believe that the task of fixing the fundamentals of modern culture is beyond human power, and those who believe that the fixing of fundamentals would limit the teacher's freedom, thereby destroying his professional enthusiasm and changing him from a humanising influence into a machine. To the first it seems necessary to say: "Let us try; your criticisms shall be welcome." To the second the ensuing paragraphs are addressed, in the hope of allaying their fears and their opposition at the same time.

Supporters of freedom are not only sincere, but they are frequently the people who are the idealists of the profession: men and women of enthusiasm who, if they were convinced that any proposal would hamper them in the effort to pursue their high ideals, would suffer intensely; men and women whose discouragement and diminution

of enthusiasm and efficiency would be the greatest loss and calamity which the profession could suffer.

The great problem that those have to face who believe in the necessity of obtaining a curriculum which covers at least the fundamentals for life in its widest sense is to prove to these idealists that their aspirations are untouched by these proposals, and that their freedom is retained undiminished, and that the suggestions are not made by formalists who desire to make education into a machine that turns out standard patterns both of teacher and pupils.

True freedom always carries on its activities within the limits of law. The laws of a democratic community are made by its members, and constitute a body of rules essential for the well-being of the members. They are, in a free country, as few as are consonant with the well-being of the State as a whole. They are the fundamentals. Within these fundamentals each may express himself as much as is possible to him and as freely as the community by its laws has decided is good for the whole body politic. It must first be recognized, then, that freedom has its limits, within which the best possible work may be done.

Now, the thesis is at least arguable that an agreed-upon minimum curriculum—a curriculum in which at least the fundamentals are always present—will not hamper the freedom of any man, however idealistic he may be, however specialised a form his enthusiasm may take. If, for example, such a teacher has founded his ideals and his culture on what is called geography, it is certain that he will teach the fundamentals of that knowledge, and the request that he shall not thereby cause the child to forgo the advantage of possessing the fundamentals of history or mathematical knowledge will diminish neither his real freedom nor his sense of freedom.

Those who oppose the proposal on the grounds of free-

dom will not deny the presence of some danger in uncontrolled enthusiasm. Frequent experience shows that there is considerable risk in the case of a specialist of overemphasising his subject to the detriment of other fundamentals just as vital to the child in his struggle to adapt himself to his environment, the effect of which may be to leave him handicapped in a world which needs both special and general knowledge.

The real difficulty of the problem of freedom has now to be faced, the difficulty, namely, of showing that the proposals here made leave the teacher free to pursue his ideals; and in attempting this proof it is necessary to ask the careful and sympathetic consideration of the reader to a theory which is vital to this and many other educational problems. It is this: The soul of a teacher finds expression in his *method* of teaching. It is in his *method* of teaching, as contrasted with the *matter* of instruction, that the teacher realises that perfect freedom essential to self-expression in his art.

It is confusion of thought which leads the individual teacher to identify this freedom with the power to choose *what* he shall teach. His royal prerogative, untrammelled and unfettered except by laws of Nature, is to choose *how* he shall assist the child to transmute fact into faculty; and in deputing to the collective best minds of his profession the task of deciding upon the fundamental essentials of the curriculum, he is pursuing a commonsense course without surrendering an iota of the freedom which belongs to him by virtue of his office.

Let us now examine this theory more closely. The data of arithmetic or geography consist, considered merely as items of the curriculum, of a series of facts intrinsically useful in varying degrees, but depending for their power of inspiration, for their training value, upon the art of presentation. The results of realising this truth are far-

reaching. Being a man of intelligence, the teacher recognises that certain facts are fundamental and of intrinsic value to the child. Of the value of some other facts he is not quite so sure, but he is morally certain that every child should be acquainted with certain matters. It is true that he may appreciate their value without being, however, strongly interested in them. But—and here is the vital point—knowing their value, he determines that he will vitalise those facts and teach them in as inspiring a fashion as is possible to him. What does this mean? It means that the teacher, although not deeply interested in the facts, is supremely interested in the *method of teaching them.* This is where the teaching profession reaches its highest level and overcomes its most retardative frictions. Here we see the inspiring method in its purest form, and here we see the teacher, in spite of adverse circumstances, still expressing himself and his professional enthusiasm.

Now examine for a moment the case of the teacher who is personally interested in, or even enthusiastic about, certain subjects. It is within the experience of every person who through love of a study has come near to mastery of it that he is constantly noticing new relations and new applications of its facts to the facts of life in general. And so it is with the teacher who loves his subject-matter and is master of it. Assume that it happens to be geography, his literature lessons will bear the impress of his knowledge of geography, and his history-teaching will acquire geographical connections of immense value to his pupils. His conversation, his illustrations, his out-of-school activities with his class, with find constant expression in geographical terms. It cannot be contended by the most ardent teacher of geography that his freedom is limited by a proposal that in every school the fundamentals of geography shall be taught. On the contrary, he will find in his chosen subject two sources of inspiration

—his own personal interest in the material and professional interest in the art of presenting it.

Principles are not always easy of application, and this principle is no exception. We must therefore enquire how it touches the question of fundamentals in the literary parts of the curriculum. The subject-matter here has already received its power to inspire by the art or method of the historian or poet. A mere fact may be asserted thus: "On the 10th of May, 1774, Louis XV. died." The living writer inspires the fact by his treatment, by his method of presenting the fact: "Yes, poor Louis, Death has found thee. No palace walls or gilt buckram of stiffest ceremonial could keep him out; but he is here, here at thy very life-breath, and will extinguish it. Thou, whose whole existence hitherto was a chimera and scenic show, at length becomest a reality; sumptuous Versailles bursts asunder, like a dream, into void immensity. Time is done, and all the scaffolding of Time falls wrecked with hideous clangour round thy soul; the pale kingdoms yawn open; there must thou enter, naked, all unking'd, and await what is appointed thee."

A truth may be put before us in dead form, thus: "God does all things well." But the writer of inspiration says:

> "The year's at the spring,
> The day's at the morn.
> Morning's at seven;
> The hillside's dew-pearled;
> The lark's on the wing;
> The snail's on the thorn;
> God's in his heaven—
> All's right with the world,"

and the fact passes into our lives with a thrill, for the absence of which there is no compensation.

Thus literary material stands on a different footing from any other. In no real sense can we regard it as inert or dead, as we can and do regard many items of the syllabus

which belong to arithmetic, geography, or science. Before the teacher has put a finger, and sometimes a sacrilegious finger, upon it, it stands before our pupils in a twofold aspect—as a series of plain facts of intrinsic value, and also as facts permeated with inspiration by the form into which they have been thrown. How will this affect the question of fundamentals in history and literature? Can it be said with any meaning that there are specific parts of our literature of fundamental nature without which we ought not to allow our pupils to leave school?

It has been asserted that any single work of art touches life at all its vital points, but this is probably only true for the initiated. There is little doubt, however, that the national literature, in its collective capacity, *is* able to do this in a way which is evident to every seeker. Lyrical poetry by itself cannot be said to do this, nor epic, nor dramatic, nor narrative; but together they do sound the depths of Nature in all its forms. And since our admitted aim in the school is to bring the pupils into vital relations with all fundamental sides of life, it follows logically that we have to put before them, in an order harmonious with their developing ideas and understanding, *all types* of the highest poetry and prose which the language possesses. Beyond this, in the demand for fundamentals, there seems no reason to go. Moreover, by following these lines we provide a literary menu which will appeal to all the varied types of appreciation which exist among the children in our schools.

With regard to history-teaching, the difficulty which we have seen arises in pure literature on account of the artistic form into which it has already been thrown exists to a much less degree, and the problem is therefore simplified. As a rule, history-teaching depends for its inspiration to a considerable extent upon the teacher's method, upon the manner in which he sees and feels and expresses emotion-

ally his feelings. Nevertheless, it is true that the facts of history, like those of literature, have already been put into a more or less appealing form, and are already capable without treatment by the teacher of producing an emotional stirring in the minds of his pupils which gives rise to historical convictions and ideals.

There is, of course, no reason, except for the purposes of the present argument, why the inspirational side of history should be treated in isolation from its informative side. It should always be remembered that when discussing curricula we are dealing with information, and when discussing method we are dealing with the problem of how to make that information inspiring. Hence the protagonists of complete freedom could throw considerable light on our discussion by stating the guiding principle on which they select the syllabus of history. Do they select certain biographies, do they choose that certain facts shall be learned, because these appear to be most useful for the inculcation of certain ideals? They would most probably reply: "No; but in teaching those facts which we have decided are sufficiently important to be learned, we hope and we shall strive to do those things you spoke of." Now, expanding this statement, it means that those biographies and facts are selected which they regard as knowledge fundamental in general life, or at any rate as necessary for showing the connection or relation between fundamental items of historical knowledge; but it also means that they will seek by their method of presenting these fundamental facts to inculcate patriotism, honour, loyalty, and other ideals. And this is all we are contending for. If the idealists will only admit that they choose the history syllabus, not because of the *moral* value of the facts, but because these facts seem to them to be best calculated to give an understanding of history, to produce an intelligent citizen, one better able through his

study of those facts to make his political decisions; if they will further admit that citizen ideals will depend almost entirely upon *how* they teach those facts, then they will see, we believe, no insuperable difficulty in agreeing that in selecting fundamentals their real aim is being in no way frustrated, nor their true freedom limited.

The proposal to require the schools to teach the fundamentals of human culture is thus in no way calculated to establish a tyranny over the teacher, to stereotype the work of the school, or to standardise the teacher into a machinist. All the arguments urged on behalf of standardisation—arguments dealing chiefly with the enormous practical benefits which it is believed would follow the standardisation of the curriculum—apply with the same force in the case of "fundamentalising" it. At the same time, by merely making certain that the curriculum includes the minimum of fundamentals, no teacher is hindered in giving scope to his predilections and special powers, as was too often the case when standardisation exercised its tyranny over details.[1]

[1] In a paper on standardisation of the curriculum by Mr. Dumville, he points out certain great advantages which would follow the course suggested. All teachers, he says, would be familiar with the complete course of instruction; inspectors and others would not, as now, in assessing the work of the school, have to spend time in studying the school curricula; the official curriculum would be invested with the authority which at present it lacks; and a vast amount of thought now directed to the framing of syllabuses could be devoted to method. I gather from my reading of Mr. Dumville's paper that the chief advantage he sees in standardisation is to be found in the possibility of giving copious help to teachers in elaborating methods of teaching; as in France, periodicals and books would be written by specialists in large numbers showing how the definite subject-matter should be taught; in fact, I am not sure that Mr. Dumville does not exaggerate the educational value of this consequence. In any case, "standardisation" is not the same thing as a minimum of fundamentals; if it is, then it would be well to say so very plainly.

CHAPTER VII

CURRICULA OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS

In the course of a perfectly general education until twelve, various signs have indicated what broad fields in life the pupil, following his natural bent, will traverse. Only the very widest generalisations with regard to these fields will as yet be possible, and in many instances none. By the age of fourteen more specific tendencies show themselves, and it begins to be clear whether the boy has linguistic or literary, mathematical or scientific interests and powers. The realities of life begin now to appear as purposes which act as driving forces, but which in most cases do not yet point in specialised directions. Even where such indications are not wanting, the pupil's choice has frequently to be guided and controlled, for it is easy for an immature mind to take short views. He will often readily seize upon narrow and immediately useful interests, and become a rather unsafe guide in choosing his special line. He will devote much energy to shorthand and book-keeping, which a consensus of opinion rightly regards as subjects of too specialised a nature for the pupil under sixteen, and as of less intrinsic value than other branches of human culture. Sixteen seems to be the age at which the boy's hitherto uncertain interests take permanent forms.

On the whole, it seems that Nature has marked out general directions for the educationist to follow. Up to the age of twelve, and under ordinary conditions, the pupil will be occupied in adjusting himself to the more fundamental elements of his immediate and remote environment; from that age to fourteen he will become more or less clearly

aware of the *general* directions in which his powers lie; from fourteen to sixteen he will probably be seeking—and will find by the end of the period—the special power or powers with which Nature may have endowed him. The girl arrives at these stages about a year earlier.

We may make from these facts two valuable conclusions with regard to curricula for pupils between the ages of ten and sixteen. We may conclude, in the first place, that the education given should be of a general type, many-sided, and dealing with fundamentals. If the child's nature and needs are used as guides, no attempt will be made before this age to specialise, to go deeply into one branch of study by neglecting others—in other words, to deprive the pupil of his chance of finding "himself." In the second place, it is evident that the curriculum will have to exhibit a development from broad features to details, from outlines to light and shade, from width to depth. The beginnings of the different studies will be found in the common observable facts of life, which will have to be treated on informal lines; later will appear the more hidden relations, with the possibility of systematic and formal treatment.

Such conclusions can only refer to the ordinary normal child. There are, it is certain, many children to whom they cannot be made to apply. Some, who have matured more rapidly than the average, definitely indicate their special powers long before the age of sixteen; others of very slow growth require a year or two more in which to develop their hidden talent. Hence there should be no attempt to devise a cast-iron curriculum for different ages, but, on the contrary, every effort to allow of due elasticity and variety. None the less, for the good of the great majority of Secondary School pupils it is vitally necessary to make use of these principles, since without them our pupils would leave school without mental equilibrium,

viewing the world through a deceptive twilight of unassimilated and unrelated knowledge.

The educational aim of providing the opportunity for self-development, for the growth of special powers, and of a background of general culture capable of directing and controlling those special powers, can only be achieved if the principle of a general education until sixteen is observed. Few educationists to-day believe in the possibility of producing a wide and catholic mind by means of specialised school instruction. Unfortunately, the school reflects one phase of the life of the community—its hurry and push and struggle—with a thoroughness it fails to put into other far more important phases; hence early specialisation is by no means unknown. While few enlightened teachers would advocate for pupils under sixteen a merely mathematical or scientific or linguistic training, in practice this tendency is often seen. The State itself some years ago encouraged this tendency, and by its large grants to the Organised Science Schools handicapped to a disastrous degree the literary and linguistic curriculum. Its repentance is, however, thorough; every publication now issued by the Board of Education on the subject of Secondary School curricula urges the necessity of width and catholicity.

A comparatively small but influential group of educationists still maintains the superior value of a merely classical training. The most conservative would begin this type of instruction at an early age, give it an overwhelming position in the curriculum, and continue it as long as school education lasts, in the belief that it will produce the most adaptable and able type of mind. The more liberal supporters of a classical education no longer contend that this view is correct, and, while asserting its value as an essential part of the curriculum, have the vision to see that it can be only a part, and may not usurp

the place of other instruction necessary to complete living, whether social, business, or professional. There are teachers who lay the same unwarrantable emphasis upon science teaching.

The theory put forward here, and which appears to be accepted by the State, is that, with certain modifications to suit special cases, the Secondary School curriculum should up to the age of twelve be quite general in character; that from this age to sixteen it should continue to be general, at the same time making provision for certain observed tendencies towards mathematical, scientific, and linguistic studies; and that from sixteen years of age specialisation as usually understood should begin. Thus we find that in a recent memorandum issued by the Board of Education encouragement is given to an organisation which makes the age eleven to twelve the time for beginning the first foreign language. English language and literature, geography, history, mathematics, science, and drawing; organised games, physical exercises, manual instruction, and singing, together with domestic subjects for girls—in fact, all the fundamental aspects of life, the general elements of human thought and activity—are to receive continuous attention until the age of sixteen.[1] When this point is reached, a two years' course of advanced instruction in either (1) science and mathematics, (2) classics, or (3) languages and history,[2] with instruction in subjects of a general nature, is permissible where adequate equipment exists.

The necessity for a general education until sixteen thus meets with wide agreement. The nature of the pupil seems clearly to point to it; the close interconnection of all branches of knowledge demands it. The intensive thought upon education during the last few decades by

[1] "Regulations for Secondary Schools," chapter ii.
[2] *Ibid.*, chapter viii.

psychologists, educationists, social workers, eminent writers of fiction, and last, but by no means least, by teachers and Board of Education experts, has given such confirmation to the principle that it may be regarded as unassailable.

A principle of so general a nature will naturally allow of varying application, according to varying conditions. We have seen that in the case of the Elementary Schools local and special conditions affected methods of teaching and to some degree the curriculum itself; and the same will occur, and to a greater degree, in the case of Secondary Schools. Local advantages and needs will afford the Secondary School teacher means not only of vitalising the curriculum by means of illustrations and examples drawn from the environment, by the inclusion of special problems and special applications of scientific principles, but also of widening the common minimum curriculum in the direction of local conditions and their corresponding interests for the greater number of pupils. We need only instance the Secondary Schools of mining districts or of towns where dyeing is carried on or those of agricultural areas.

Considerable variety in the curriculum is legitimate. The future occupation, the age at which pupils enter and at which they leave the school, the previous training and the home life, the fact of residence or non-residence in the school, and the individual tastes of the scholars, will all have their effect in the shaping of the scheme of work.

It will frequently be necessary to give variety to the curriculum by emphasising some portions of it, or by giving more intensive study to one part, while necessarily allowing others to proceed more slowly. The average pupil often finds a new subject or branch very baffling and obscure at first, and is consequently discouraged; hence it is advisable to curtail the period of "gaping," and to get as quickly as the pupil's powers will permit into the

smoother waters of familiarity and habit. Moreover, experience shows us that an outburst of energy in one direction entails a diminution of it in nearly every other.

It is obvious that schools which retain their pupils until sixteen and eighteen years of age will show far deeper differences in their curricula than those schools which the pupil leaves at fourteen. It is for this reason, as well as others, that the head-master of a Secondary School should be entrusted with greater freedom in shaping his curriculum than his fellow-worker in the Elementary School. No one can know better than he the local needs and the special function his school is capable of performing; no one is better situated for observing the developing special tastes and powers of his pupils. Subject, therefore, to a certain degree of supervision with regard to the common fundamentals, he should have authority to frame his scheme of work within the limits already defined.

The freedom delegated to the head-master should always be circumscribed by enlightened supervision. The absolute freedom of the "private school" is educationally wrong. It has been said that some of the best and most self-sacrificing efforts for educational reform have originated in such schools, "whose record in this respect compares favourably with that of any other class of school."[1] This is true, but it is equally true that many such schools have produced a kind of educational chaos and a lack of foundation and balance altogether detrimental to the general educational progress of the country. Under what is now an enlightened central authority and an enlightened, progressive inspectorate, there is room for every type of educational experiment. It must always be remembered that for every experiment which succeeds in proving its worth as a new pedagogic departure, probably ninety-nine

[1] "Educational Reform," p. 197. Report of the Educational Reform Council (Teachers' Guild).

fail to do so. There is, therefore, nothing reactionary in the plea that they should be undertaken only after the most serious consideration by the originator, and with such supervisory precautions as may prevent a large number of pupils suffering shipwreck in the process.

The curriculum of the efficient Secondary School is often affected adversely by a multiplicity of external examinations, the syllabuses of which have been fixed without regard to the special character and function of the particular school. The whole curriculum has been framed to meet the demands of one or more examinations, and the principle of fundamentals has gone by the board. The theory of the head-master's freedom has perished too, and the general loss in educational efficiency is not counterbalanced by a long list of examination successes. Variety in the curriculum caused by outside examinations is generally to be condemned. The curriculum should be planned with both eyes shut to everything which lies outside the lines of natural development, examinations only being used to see that the teaching has been effective or to test whether a pupil is fit to pass on to the next stage in his natural progress.

The curriculum may also suffer considerably owing to the absence of a proper co-ordination of the various subjects. We aim at a very remote and inaccessible ideal in trying to produce in our pupils unity of thought; none the less it is necessary to work in that direction. Growing unity of purpose may lead to some degree of thought unity, and the curriculum should be framed to further both ends. Mathematics, for example, should appear, not as an isolated domain of knowledge, but as an integral part of geographical, scientific, and manual work. Latin should put in a useful appearance in many English and French lessons and in history. Wherever natural connections exist, they should be utilised for the purpose, among

others, of unifying the "all too naturally departmentalised minds of our pupils." We have already seen that correlation of this kind is brought about most fully by means of intelligent methods of teaching, and less fully by the properly arranged curriculum. It is, however, very important in the Secondary School to lay great stress upon a well-co-ordinated curriculum, since the work of a form is not, as in the Elementary School, in the hands of one teacher. The pupil may have four or five or even more masters for different subjects, and unless obvious precautions are taken, each of these subjects will preserve an entirely independent existence, thus losing much of their power to produce the unity which gives force and direction to life.

One of the first great problems which face the educationist in his endeavour to gain clear ideas and ideals with regard to Secondary School curricula is the question of the continuity of Elementary and Secondary Education. Is it advisable, and if so is it possible, to secure this continuity? The answer to the first query is to be found in our social and national ideals. In a real democracy it is scarcely possible to take up any attitude but that of consent. A career open to all the talents, and without unnecessary impediments, is the only logical formula. The idealists have already—and the practical men and women are now following in the same direction—contended that all the children of the nation should receive the same education up to a certain age, some arguing that this age should be twelve and others fourteen. The gain, they say, would be enormous. Some educationists, in their anxiety to preserve the Elementary School curriculum from undue influence by Secondary School aims, insist on keeping the two distinct throughout. Others, moved by the same anxiety on behalf of Secondary School curricula,

support the same view. There is little doubt, however, that this reform will become before long an accomplished fact.

The psychological grounds for it are strong; for the nature and capacity of normal children up to about the age of twelve do not vary to so great a degree as to require quite different mental food. It is only when the permanent powers are beginning to appear, when the leaving age is approaching and the future career is becoming clear to both teacher and pupil, that any considerable difference in curricula is needed.

As to the ways and means of effecting this continuity, opinions vary, but not to an extent that should paralyse action. The simplest and soundest plan would appear to be to postpone the learning of all languages other than the mother-tongue until after twelve years of age; to give a good grounding in Nature-study, out of which the sciences and geography would develop naturally; and to extend the often narrow arithmetic scheme of the Elementary School by including practical mensuration and geometry—a much-needed modification, good for the Elementary School pupil and a preparation for the mathematical studies of Secondary Education.

To all who place their confidence in a purely classical, and even to those who put their faith in a scientific education, the proposal will be unwelcome, but the number of such is now fortunately small. More opposition would be met with from those who believe in the necessity for beginning languages early, and cannot, therefore, face with equanimity the delay involved. Some teachers who support the principle of this reform hesitate over this language difficulty; Messrs. Norwood and Hope would have French begun by Elementary School pupils of capacity at ten years of age, so that they should not be placed at a disadvantage when entering the Secondary School at

twelve.[1] There is, however, no need for this exception; an ordinary child has no really firm grasp of his native language and its construction before the age of twelve, and until he has will meet with discouragements in the acquirement of a foreign tongue which we have every reason to avoid. Actual results show, too, that pupils beginning the foreign language at twelve are in no way handicapped, and in a very short time have caught up with those who began it at ten.

The writers just mentioned have suggested a further important step in the process of co-ordinating English education. They propose such a manipulation of the curriculum as will bring the Secondary Schools of the second grade into line with those of the first grade, so as to enable pupils to pass easily from one to the other at any stage below the age of sixteen. A proof of the convenience of such an arrangement might be insufficient; it rests, however, on a firmer basis—namely, the nature and necessities of the pupil. For the ordinary boy and girl two years should be given to one foreign language before beginning another. Here, therefore, the convenient coincides with the natural.

The only flaw in the scheme seems to be that Higher Grade Secondary Schools require that Latin should be begun before the age of fourteen. Messrs. Norwood and Hope therefore suggest that the Second Grade Secondary Schools should choose Latin rather than German as the second language to be studied until fourteen. As they point out, this would make a homogeneous scheme feasible, but they fail to show that their preference for Latin is educationally sound. Most of the old phrases about the training value of Latin are used, and Canon Glazebrook's platitudes on the disciplinary values of certain studies are quoted. The writers seem even unaware that the dogma

[1] Norwood and Hope, "Higher Education of Boys in England."

of "formal training" has ever been contested. Fortunately, the fact that everything does not fit in the scheme constitutes no argument against its general soundness. The age of fourteen is quite early enough for deciding whether the bias is to be on the classical or the modern side, and it may very well be that the Higher Grade Schools are badly advised in beginning Latin at twelve. We give on pages 112 and 113 the complete proposals.[1]

The war and the consequent national awakening as to the value of education have given an impetus to suggestions for reform in secondary organisation and curricula from many directions. Among these the work of the Education Reform Council, initiated by the Teachers' Guild, has been of very high value. In dealing with Secondary Schools of the second grade, the Council made proposals with which the present writer is in very close agreement. They divide the school course into three stages—viz., Stage I. (ages about ten to twelve), Stage II. (from twelve to fourteen), and Stage III. (from fourteen to sixteen), and outline a normal minimum curriculum, open to various detailed modifications, to meet varying conditions. See table, p. 114.

Several valuable qualities characterise this arrangement. First of all the curriculum of Stage I. has no foreign language, the time usually occupied by such a study being devoted to a more thorough understanding of and power over the mother-tongue. Secondly, two years elapse between beginning the first and beginning the second foreign language; this obviates the necessity for that pernicious hurry and overwork which mar Secondary Education so frequently, and permits the deliberate and even leisurely absorption of knowledge and acquirement of

[1] Norwood and Hope, "Higher Education of Boys in England," p. 297.

HIGHER GRADE SECONDARY SCHOOL, PREPARING FOR THE UNIVERSITIES.

	Below Course.		*Lower Course.*				*Classical Specialists.*			*Other Specialists.*		
Average Age of Boys.	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	16	17	18
Divinity ..	A1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
English ..	6	6	3	3	2	2	3	2	2	3	2	2
Latin ..	—	—	6	6	6	6	15	20	22	3	3	3
Greek ..	—	—	—	—	B6	6				B4	4	4
French ..	6	6	5	5	3	3	3	D3	2	3	3	2
German ..	—	—	—	—	B6	6	—			B4	4	4
History ..	3	3	2	2	2	2	E3	3	3	E3	3	3
Geography ..	2	2	2	2	2	2	—	—	—			
Mathematics	6	6	6	6	5	5	5	3	2	14	16	17
Science ..	—	—	C3	3	3	3	2	—	—			
Nature Study	3	3			—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Writing ..	1	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Drawing ..	2	2	2	2	2	2	—	—	—	1	—	—
Manual Training ..	2	2	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total periods per week ..	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32

Each period has an average duration of forty-five minutes.

A. Another period will be given to Divinity on Sundays in boarding-schools.
B. Greek and German are alternative subjects.
C. A bracket between two subjects means that the periods can be distributed according to need.
D. German, instead of French, may be taught in the two top classical forms.
E. In the last three years, classical boys will give two-thirds of their time to classical and one-third to modern history; modern boys the reverse.
F. History and modern language specialists will have time assigned from the periods given to mathematics and science.

Civics will be taught in a period taken from an English subject, hygiene in a period taken from science or mathematics.

MUNICIPAL SECONDARY SCHOOL, PREPARING FOR COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY.

	Below Course.		*Lower Course.*				*Higher Course.*			
Average Age of Boys.	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
Divinity ..	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
English ..	6	6	3	3	3	3	C4	4	4	(+2)D
French ..	6	6	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	
German ..	—	—	B6	6	5	5	5	5	5	
Latin ..	—	—	B6	6	5	5	5	5	5	
History ..	3	3	2	2	2	2	} 4	} 4	} 4	
Geography ..	2	2	2	2	2	2				
Mathematics	6	6	6	6	6	6	5	5	5	(+5)E
Science ..	—	—	} 3	} 3	4	4	5	5	5	
Nature Study	} A3	} 3			—	—	—	—	—	
Writing ..	} 1	} 1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Drawing ..	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	(+2)D
Manual Training ..	2	2	2	2	2	2	—	—	—	
Total periods per week..	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	

Each period has a duration of forty-five minutes.

A. A bracket between two subjects means that the periods can be distributed according to need.

B. Latin and German are alternative subjects.

C. One of the English periods during the last three years might well be devoted to the study of classical history and of classical literature in translations.

D. Two extra periods to be assigned to English or to drawing, at the option of the boy, in the higher course.

E. Five extra periods may be assigned to science, as an alternative to keeping up a second language in the higher course.

Civics will be taught in a period taken from an English subject, hygiene in a period taken from science or mathematics.

NOTE.—I have ventured to criticise the above scheme, but I have also tried to express my conviction that it follows, on the whole, sound pedagogic principles, and is not open to the criticism that it is at present impracticable—a criticism which may with some show of reason be levelled against other more radical reforms.

SUGGESTED CURRICULUM AND DISTRIBUTION OF LESSON PERIODS.

Subject.	Stage I. (*About Ten to Twelve*).	Stage II. (*About Twelve to Fourteen*).	Stage III. (*About Fourteen to Sixteen*).
Scripture	1	1	1
English	6	4 or 5	4 or 5
History	3	2 or 3	2 or 3
Geography	3 or 2	2	2
French	—	5	4
Second Foreign Language or some alternative ..	—	—	5
Mathematics	5 or 6	5 or 6	5 or 6
Natural Science	3 or 2	4	4
Drawing (including Colour Work)	2	2	2
Vocal Music and Musical Appreciation	2	2	2
Handwork	2 or 3	2	2
Physical Training	3	2	2
Total Number of Periods ..	30	31–34	35–38

power so essential to real development. Lastly, the possibility of teaching only one foreign language is envisaged, and a place in Secondary Education is conceded to those possessed of little linguistic ability.

Every highly civilised nation of modern times has tried to introduce variety into the matter taught in its Secondary Schools. The centuries old practice of putting all pupils through the same machine, regardless of special tastes and powers, is no longer pursued. Considerable freedom of choice now lies before every Secondary School pupil, who can at some time or other choose between classical, modern language, scientific, mathematical, and, later in his school life, historical courses. One characteristic of English and

French as contrasted with German Secondary Schools is that all these varied courses are carried on in the same institution. The encouragement given by the Board of Education to collaboration between schools, with the view of making full use of special staff qualifications and equipment, and the recent introduction of advanced courses for the older scholars, sometimes entailing the transference of pupils to schools specially organised for the purpose, mark a small step in the German direction.

On the whole, the facts put forward in the last chapter have had considerable weight in the framing of Secondary School curricula. Some schools have provided a general education up to eleven or twelve, introduced a superficial division at fourteen, and begun specialisation in earnest at sixteen. A few have even continued what may be regarded as a true general education up to fourteen. On the other hand, some Public Schools specialise from the beginning. We may disapprove of this system and lament its effects, but it must be remembered that such schools often do not draw their pupils from the locality, but from the country as a whole; they supply no local needs, and parents need not send their children to them unless they choose.

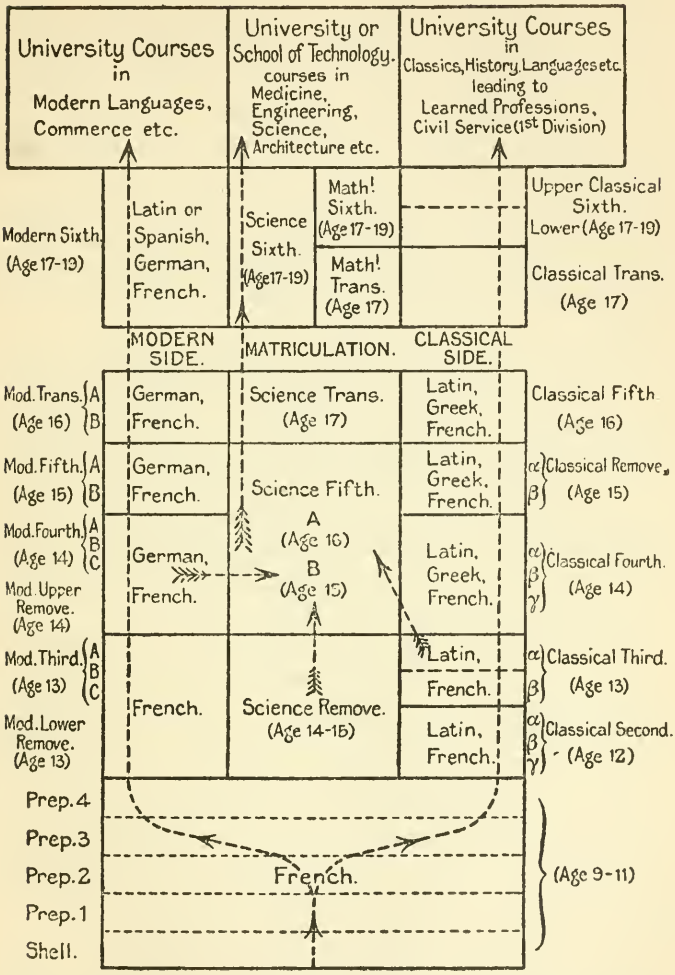
When the school drawing its pupils from the neighbourhood is very large and well equipped, it develops, as has been observed, two or more sides, with different kinds of curricula. We may take the Manchester Grammar School as an example. This school, which fulfils a special function in the midst of a large industrial and commercial population, has a Preparatory, Lower, and Upper School, with pupils varying in age from nine to nineteen. It also admits a large number of scholarship boys from the Elementary Schools at the age of eleven or twelve. In the four preparatory forms, containing boys of from nine to eleven years of age, the curriculum is the same for all, and

contains, in addition to the ordinary subjects, French and Nature-study. A good grounding in English is also aimed at. As soon as the pupil reaches the Upper School—that is, at the age of eleven—he must decide which branch of study to follow—classics or modern languages. These are separate from this moment all through the school, no Latin being taught on the modern side until the top form is reached. Thus it is practically impossible for a scholar beginning on the modern side to transfer to the classical, but, on the other hand, it is possible to begin on the classical and transfer to the modern. The study of Latin and Greek appears to be considered of the very highest value, for every encouragement is given to enter the classical side. In advising parents as to their choice, the head-master urges not only the utility of Latin for business and commerce, but the old argument, rather threadbare in recent years, that it is the most logical of all languages and teaches clear and accurate thought. Greek is said to be the most beautiful and delicate of all languages, and the source and standard of most of the intellectual and artistic achievements of modern Europe. Fortunately, we are not compelled to discuss here these statements, and need only note the fact that, although Latin is regarded as of such intrinsic importance, it does not appear as a subject of study on the modern side.

The complete scheme of studies is admirably set out in the diagram given on p. 117.[1]

The idea upon which such an organisation is based appears to be that at the age of eleven a boy has indicated which general direction his path in life will take, either towards commerce or the learned professions. If later on it is found that he has mistaken his bent in following a

[1] Arranged by Mr. Hope, Head-master of the Roan School and formerly Classical Master at the Manchester Grammar School, through whose courtesy this information and much other has come into my hands.



N.B.—The Fourths and all forms above the Fourths constitute the Upper School; the forms below the Fourths are the Lower School.

classical line, he can easily change to the modern side by dropping Greek for good and Latin for a time. In the case of a pupil on the modern side wishing to transfer to the classical, some intensive work in Latin and Greek might perhaps be attempted, but would be extremely difficult. Specialisation in science does not occur until the age of fourteen, and the science side then draws pupils from both classical and modern sides. Real specialisation in mathematics begins at seventeen. Science and mathematics both lead towards more specialised University and technological courses in medicine, engineering, and science.

Another principle of first-rate importance finds application in this curriculum—namely, that the basis of all school studies should be linguistic. Both modern and classical sides are fundamentally linguistic in character, science being added later, and in larger doses to the curriculum of the former than to that of the latter. This principle has met with very general acceptance by the great body of educational opinion, and is the view held by the Central Educational Authority.

On the classical side at Manchester Latin is begun at twelve and Greek at fourteen, and on the modern side German is taken up at fourteen. This arrangement follows the common-sense rule that two foreign languages should not be begun at the same time. "Concurrent study of two foreign languages (French and Latin), and sometimes three (Greek or German in addition), before elements of one have been mastered, and often before pupils can read and write intelligently, is one of the most disastrous features of our secondary education."[1]

The practice of allowing time in which to become familiarised with one language before beginning another is now observed in many schools, and affects all pupils except

[1] "Educational Reform," p. 79.

the winners of scholarships who enter at about the age of twelve. At the Manchester Grammar School these presumably bright children, when too advanced in general subjects to be put into a preparatory form, are on the modern side drafted into two Remove forms. Remove A is for the best of these new entrants, who begin intensive work in French and German. In Remove B the others are taught French only. At the end of a year the former pass into the Fifth and the latter into the Third or Fourth Forms. Many Secondary Schools have a somewhat similar organisation, and allow boys who enter at the age of eleven or twelve, both scholarship-holders and others, to begin French and Latin at the same time. This arrangement may be the best possible under the circumstances, but the plan is opposed to all we know of a child's nature and powers of absorbing new knowledge. It would be scarcely a matter for surprise if some of these children, showing precocity at the age of eleven or twelve, but lacking the foundation of English grammar, should lose their way among conflicting vocabularies and rules and end in dulness or enfeebled health.

CHAPTER VIII

CURRICULA OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS (*Continued*)

We have seen that local conditions, together with the aims, needs, and tastes of the pupils, rightly exert a strong influence upon the curricula of all except the Public Schools drawing pupils from every part of the country. The recognition of the pupils' right to consideration in the framing of curricula naturally leads to a considerable variety of studies. At University College, for example, the boys may be reclassified for almost every subject, and thus to all intents and purposes work to separate time-tables. Clifton College, on the other hand, compromises in an interesting way between entirely separate "sides" and extreme variety, and may be used to illustrate this blurring of the line between classical and modern. The blur is not, however, very pronounced.

The Upper School, for boys between the ages of thirteen and nineteen, is divided into three sides—the classical, the modern, and the military. The Junior School, for boys between ten and fourteen, prepares for all three sides of the Upper School. A Preparatory School for boys between seven and eleven, and limited to forty-five boys, prepares for the Junior School. In the Preparatory School a grounding is given in the English subjects, French, Latin, and arithmetic. In the Junior School the same subjects are taught, and in the highest classes of this section Greek is included for those preparing to enter the classical side of the Upper School. Thus before a boy is thirteen years of age he has begun to study three languages

besides his own. The pupils intending to enter the modern side give extra time to mathematics. The Upper School bifurcates at once into modern and classical sides, the modern side including intending candidates for the army, who form a distinct side after they have passed through the Fourth Form.

Every boy is placed in a form, and follows certain studies with all his form mates. Other subjects are taught in sets—that is, groups of boys chosen from different forms according to their capacity in the special branch. The mathematical sets throughout the school and the science sets in the upper half are common to the two sides of the school.

The following tabular summary shows the general arrangement :

MODERN SIDE

FORM III.—*Form Subjects.*—Scripture, English, History, Geography, Drawing, and Latin.

Sets.—French, Mathematics, and Natural Science.

FORM IV.—*Form Subjects.*—Scripture, English, History, Geography, Drawing, and Latin.

Sets.—Mathematics, Science, French, Latin or German.

FORM V.—*Form Subjects.*—Scripture, English, History, Geography.

Sets.—Mathematics, Science, French, Latin or German. Specialisation takes place in Mathematics, History, or Modern Languages, and Advanced English in some cases is substituted for Science.

FORM VI.—Scripture. Continued development of the subjects of this side, but more elasticity in their routine. Preparation for University and other examinations.

CLASSICAL SIDE

FORM III.—*Form Subjects.*—Scripture, English, History, Geography, Drawing, and Latin.

Sets.—Greek, French, Mathematics, and Science.

FORM IV.—*Form Subjects.*—Scripture, English, History, Geography, Drawing, Latin, and Greek.

Sets.—French, Mathematics, and Science.

FORM V., LOWER.—*Form Subjects.*—Scripture, English, History, Geography, Latin, and Greek.

Sets.—Science or French.

Modern Language specialists drop Greek for German.

FORM V., UPPER.—*Form Subjects.*—Scripture, English, History, Geography, Latin, and Greek. French dropped and German begun.

Remissions from Form work to cultivate special tastes for Science, Mathematics, Modern Languages or History.

From the lowest form of the Upper School, when pupils are about thirteen years old, some amount of choice is offered. There they choose, or it is to be hoped that their parents choose, which main side—classical or modern—they shall adopt. As at Manchester, the school authorities recommend, although not so strongly, the classical side. In the classical Lower Fifth boys choose between continuing science or French, and in the Upper Fifth special tastes in science, mathematics, modern languages, and history, are given opportunities for cultivation. On the modern side it is very similar. During practically the whole period of Upper School life the pupil may obtain permission to change from classical to modern or *vice versa*, or to devote more time to some special subject or group of subjects.

This freedom in choosing after minimum requirements are secured is typical of many of the best schools, and is becoming more and more general. The decision is rightly made by the head-master and staff in consultation with the parents. And behind these stands the boy, expressing his desires or demonstrating by his work or unintentionally expressed tastes and needs the direction of his own choice.

The Highgate School carries the principle of individual choice considerably farther. This school has four divisions with, roughly, 120 boys in each—the Junior School (ages nine to twelve); the Lower School (twelve to fourteen); a Middle School (fourteen to sixteen); and an Upper School (sixteen to nineteen). The top of the school is classified as University and Non-University; the pupils of the former prepare for the University of London and for Cambridge and Oxford; a minority of the latter prepare for the London Matriculation as a means of entering various professions; the others, unable for some reason or another to follow the lines just described and constituting about 80 per cent. of the Non-University pupils, are encouraged to pursue their own bent with greater freedom. For these the scheme of study varies according to the boy's special tastes and abilities, his intended career, and the financial ability of his parents to continue his technical or professional education. The "form system" with its form subjects is retained; at the same time needful elasticity is introduced, and the ordinary boy is not sacrificed to the brilliant few.

Apart from form organisation, there are three group systems in the top part of the school. Group System A consists of Sixth Form boys, all taking specialised work of an advanced kind—classical, modern languages, or scientific. The classical is the only homogeneous group, although some of these specialise also in French or German or science. The modern section is a composite body, con-

sisting of pupils specialising in history, modern languages, mathematics, and science. Some others who have passed the University Entrance Examination, and whose education has so far been chiefly literary, specialise in science at a lower standard, for the immediate purpose of reaching the Science Sixth. The Science Sixth consists of three classes —future doctors, engineers, and chemists—who work together for about half the time. The unity of the whole form is preserved by common work in English literature and history.

Group System B covers a very large number of boys from fifteen and a half to seventeen years, some of whom will later reach Group A, and others who will never know a Sixth Form, the latter including boys whose only object is to pass a Matriculation Examination or an ordinary entrance examination for Oxford or Cambridge. These undertake only semi-specialised work, and their scheme of studies is naturally more comprehensive. Group-work is confined to fewer hours, and opportunities are afforded of coping seriously with weak subjects. The boy who goes later to the Science Sixth works intensively at science at the expense of language—that is, instead of three he takes two languages.

Group System C contains backward boys of from fifteen to seventeen years of age, about 10 per cent. of whom are unusually dull at their studies. For these, the curriculum is narrowed in a way depending on the boys' special needs. A few take one language in addition to English, and all retain some science and some mathematics. The organisation of the group is completed by redistribution into sets; on the modern side they are reclassified both for Latin and for the second modern language, which is German or Spanish. Redistribution for mathematics and science is at present impossible, owing to the demands such a system of grouping makes upon the staff.

The College at Bishop's Stortford shows interesting variations, and may be instanced here, although it has no pupils beyond the age of seventeen. The Upper School consists of the Sixth Forms; the Middle School of the Fifth and Fourth Forms; the Lower School of the Third Forms; the Preparatory School of the Second and First Forms. The school prepares for business and professional careers. The form subjects consist of Scripture, English, history, geography, French, mathematics, and natural science; manual instruction, with a blank between the ages of twelve and thirteen, merges into physics and mechanics; music and drawing are taught until the age of fourteen and a half is reached. Latin is begun at the age of twelve; at the age of fifteen and a half, in the Lower Fifth, Greek or German is chosen—a very desirable postponement for most boys. In the Sixth Form pupils must choose between Greek, German, and science, but all boys continue to learn some science, which, as Nature-study, physics, and chemistry, is taken throughout the whole school. The Fourth Forms are parallel, as are also the Fifth; and as the same subjects are taught simultaneously, the boys can be redistributed into sets for all subjects. In the Sixth Forms redistribution takes place for mathematical work. There are therefore no "sides." Instead of "sides" the forms are arranged in parallel divisions, the organisation of the time-table allowing of transference when advisable. Pupils have to determine in the Fourth Form between classics and modern languages, but need not decide until the Lower Sixth between modern languages and science.

The complete time analysis is given on p. 126.

The Higher Grade Secondary Schools are thus emphasising more and more the need of a common basis of knowledge and power, and deferring the moment for final specialisation, with its consequent dropping of some

	Preparatory School.		Lower School.				Middle School.														Upper School.			
Form.	*I.*		*II.*		*Lower III.*		*Upper III.*		*IV.B*		*IV.A*		*Lower V.B*		*Lower V.A*		*Upper V.B*		*Upper V.A*		*Lower VI.*		*Upper VI.*	
No. of pupils..	20		16		26		27		17		18		11		15		15		20		14		11	
Average age	9 years 2 m'th.		10·10		12·5		13·7		15·1		14·5		15·6		15·6		16·1		15·9		16·6		16·11	
Total School Hours.. ..	23½		23¾		26		26		26		26		25¼		25		26¼		26½		27		27	
Subjects.	*No. of Hours: (a) In School; (b) in Preparation.*																							
	a	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*
Religious Instruction ..	1¼	—	1¼	½	1¼	⅓	1¼	½	1¼	½	1½	½	1¼	½	1¼	½	2¼	½	2¼	⅔	2¼	1	2¼	1
English and History ..	10½	2½	7½	2¾	6¾	2⅔	6	1½	5¼	2½	3¾	2	5¼	1½	4½	2	4½	1½	4	2	3¾	1½	3¾	2
Geography	1¾	—	2¼	¼	1½	⅓	1½	½	1½	½	1½	½	¾	½	¾	½	¾	½	¾	⅔	—	—	—	—
Latin	—	—	—	—	4½	2⅔	5¼	2½	2¼	1½	4½	2	3	2	4½	2½	3	2	4½	2⅔	5¼	3	6	5
Greek	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3¾	2	3¾	2	4½	2	4½	2	4½	2	4½	2⅔	6	3	6	5
French	3¼	2½	3¼	2½	4½	1⅓	4½	1½	3¾	2	3¾	2	3¾	2	3¾	2	3¾	2	3¾	2⅔	3¾	2	3¾	3
German	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3¾	2	3¾	2	4½	2	4½	2	4½	2	4½	2⅔	6	3	6	4
Mathematics	4	—	6¼	—	4½	1⅔	4½	2½	4½	2	4½	2	4½	2½	4½	3	4½	2½	4½	3⅓	6	3	6	4
Mechanics	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1½	⅔	1½	⅔	1½	½	¾	⅔	—	—	—	2
Science: Physics	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	¾	⅓	¾	⅓	1½	⅔	1½	1	1½	¼	¾	⅓	3	1½	3	2
Science: Chemistry ..	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1½	⅔	1½	⅔	¾	⅓	¾	½	1½	¾	1½	⅓	3	1½	3	2
Science: Nature Study ..	½	—	¾	½	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Science: Elementary Physics	—	—	—	—	1½	⅓	1½	½	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Art (Music and Drawing) ..	1¼	—	1½	—	1½	—	1½	—	1½	—	¾	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Manual Instruction ..	1	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

NOTES.—1. In Lower V.A and B a course of practical mechanics (the practical work being done by the boys themselves) is taken for one and a half terms for one and a half hours per week, and when the course is covered, the physics are taken for the other one and a half terms of the year.

2. In Upper V.A and B theoretical mechanics are taught for two terms of the year, and the third term used in revising the practical mechanics and the Heat and Light dealt with in the Lower Fifth Form.

This organisation is now being considerably modified. Only two foreign languages—Latin and French—are now taught in the general curriculum, and the time which was formerly devoted to Greek or German is given to science; hence every form up to and including the Upper Fifth has four and a half hours' instruction in science. A sharp division of the school curriculum into two stages has also been made. The first stage, up to and including the Upper Fifth, consists of a general curriculum at the conclusion of which boys take the first school examination. In the Sixth Form from one half to two-thirds of the time is given to more specialised study, one course being chosen from the four following groups: Classics, modern studies, mathematics, science.

I retain the above account, since it shows clearly the lines along which development is taking place.

branch study or studies. Wakefield Grammar School and others give science and other general subjects their appropriate place even on the classical side. At Harrow, although the school traditions are overwhelmingly classical, the teaching of science is most efficiently organised. Out of 42 boys in the Sixth Form, 10 are specialising in classics, 9 in history, and 13 in science. At Mill Hill everyone takes not less than two periods per week in science, the subject gradually demanding more time up to six hours weekly for those who are specialising in it. On the whole there is marked progress towards balance in the various schemes of study.

The curricula of Second Grade Schools differ from those of the First Grade by the omission of Greek. The aim of such schools is chiefly preparation for commercial and professional careers; many pupils, however, enter the higher branches of industry or leave the Secondary School to enter institutions giving technical training. On the whole, few of the pupils proceed to the older Universities. The scope of the aim of these schools is therefore wide, and their curricula give indications of the endeavour to cover all possible needs. In the schemes of study we find the whole gamut of general and special studies, from Latin to shorthand and typewriting, from Spanish to business methods. The schools under State control have, however, to conform to certain regulations with regard to curricula, and are not allowed to introduce specialised technical matter, however insistent the demand of mistaken parents may be.

Without unduly limiting the head-master's freedom, the Board of Education makes certain minimum demands. While allowing for exceptional cases, it makes the grant of financial aid conditional upon efficient instruction in English language and literature; at least one other language, geography, history, mathematics, science (which

includes practical work by the pupils), and drawing; organised games, physical exercises, manual instruction, and singing, must be included for boys, and practical instruction in domestic subjects—needlework, cookery, laundry, housekeeping, and household hygiene—for girls. Languages other than English may be omitted if the instruction in English "provides special and adequate linguistic training." On the other hand, "a curriculum including two languages other than English, but making no provision for instruction in Latin, will only be approved where the Board are satisfied that the omission of Latin is for the educational advantage of the School."[1] The recently introduced advanced courses for both older boys and girls are valuable from many points of view, although they have met with equally valuable criticism, and will probably undergo great modifications. The freedom of the teacher is further guarded by the regulation that "individual pupils or special classes may, with the approval of the Board, follow a curriculum varying from the curriculum approved for the rest of the school."

The scheme of work given on p. 129 is typical of what is being done in good Secondary Schools under the conditions laid down by the Board of Education.

It is noteworthy that this scheme shows a steady adherence to the ideal of a general, wide education. There are no separate "sides," the only distinction being that while a number of non-linguistic pupils content themselves with one language other than English, the others choose whether the extra language shall be Latin or German. No pupils begin Latin until fourteen, and in the case of scholarship boys two years elapse between beginning French and a second language. Waste of energy and discouragement are diminished by regroupings for languages and mathematics, and the sane practice is pursued

[1] "Regulations for Secondary Schools," chapter ii.

COURSE COMMON TO ALL.

Form.	*Average Age.*	*Subjects.*	*Special Classes.*
I.	8–10	English, Geography, History, Nature Study, Music, Drawing, Manual Instruction, Drill (3 periods per week).	
II.	11	Above subjects. French.	
III.	12	Above subjects. French.	
Shell B }	12	Above subjects. Drill (2 periods).	
Shell A }			
IV.D	12	English, French (intensive), Chemistry and Physics, History, Geography, Music, Drawing, Manual Instruction, Drill.	Scholarship boys. Strong boys drafted into a Remove class, weak into a IV.
IV.C } IV.B } IV.A }	13	English, French, Chemistry and Physics, History, Geography, Music, Drawing, Manual Instruction, Drill.	Regrouped for French and Mathematics.
ALTERNATIVE LATIN OR GERMAN.			
Remove C (slow) } ,, B (medium) } ,, A (fast) }	14	English, French, Latin or German, History and Geography, Chemistry and Physics, Music, Drawing, Manual Instruction, Drill.	Regrouped for Languages and Mathematics. Includes Non-linguistic boys who have 3 periods French and 1 Science extra.
V.B } V.A }	15	English, French, Latin or German, History and Geography, Chemistry and Physics, Music, Drill.	
VI. Lower Lower Transitus. } VI. Lower }	15–16	English, French, Latin or German, History and Geography, Chemistry, Music, Drill.	Matriculation Form.
VI. Upper	16–17	English, Music, History and Geography, Drill.	Post-matriculation. Specialising at present in Science and Mathematics.

of giving a course in Nature-study preparatory to chemistry and physics.

Another type of Second Grade Secondary School is that in which for special reasons no Latin is taken. As already noted, schools of this variety which wish to earn Government grants must satisfy the Board of Education that such an omission is educationally sound. That it is not unwelcome to the parents is proved by the rapid increase in the number of these schools and in the number of pupils attending them. On this and the following page are given the curricula of two schools of this type.

I.

TIME ANALYSIS.

SHOWING THE TIME DEVOTED WEEKLY IN THE DIFFERENT FORMS TO EACH OF THE SUBJECTS OF THE ORDINARY SCHOOL COURSE.

Subjects.	Lower Forms.				Middle Forms.			Upper Forms.		
	I.	II.	II.a	III.	III.a	IV.	IV.a	V.	VI.	VI.a
Religious Instruction	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
English	6	6¼	7	6¾	6¼	5	3¼	3	3¼	5¼
Geography and History	3¾	3¼	3	3	3½	3	3	2½	2½	3
French	—	3	3	2¾	2¾	2¾	2¾	2¾	2¾	2¾
German	—	—	—	—	—	—	2¾	2¾	2¾	4¾
Mathematics, including Practical Geometry	6	4½	4½	5¼	4½	4¾	4¼	4	4¼	4
Chemistry	—	—	—	—	—	2½	2	2¾	2¾	2¾
Physics	—	—	—	1¼	1¼	1¼	2	2¼	3¼	2¾
Nature Study ..	1½	1¼	1½	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Drawing	2¼	1½	1¼	1¼	1¼	1¼	1¼	1¼	—	—
Manual Instruction ..	1¼	1¼	1¼	1¼	2	2	1¼	1¼	—	—
Physical Exercises ..	1¼	1½	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Vocal Music	1½	1	1	1	1	—	—	—	—	—
Shorthand	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—
Total No. of hours per week	25½	25½	25½	25½	25½	25½	25½	25½	25½	25½

II.

Form.	*I.*	*II.*C	*III.*D	*IV.*R	*IV.*A	*V.*A	*V.*C
English	8 (3 writing)	9 (2 writing)	6 (2 writing)	6	6	7	6
French	—	4	5	5	5	8	5
German	—	—	—	4	5	3	5
History	3	2	2	2	2	3	2
Geography ..	3	2	2	2	2	—	2
Mathematics ..	12	11	8	6	6	8	8
Chemistry ..	—	—	—	3	2	3	2
Physics	—	—	3	3	2	3	2
Drawing	2	2	2	2	2	—	2
Drill	2	2	1	—	1	—	1
Singing	2	1	1	—	—	—	—
Woodwork ..	—	—	3	2	2	—	—

FORM V. A, B AND C ..	Until recently prepared for Cambridge Senior Local Examination; now takes the Senior London.
FORM VI. (LOWER) ..	Prepares for London Matriculation Examination—English (6), French (6), German (6), History (3), Mathematics (8), Theoretical and Practical Chemistry (3), Theoretical and Practical Physics (3).
FORM VI. (UPPER) ..	Until recently prepared for Intermediate Civil Service Examinations and Intermediate Science (London); now takes an advanced course under the Board of Education's Regulations.

NOTES.—1. Forms not shown in above table are II.A and B, III.A, B, and C, IV.B, C, and D.

2. Form III.D contains the County Scholars and a few bright boys promoted from Form I.

NOTE.—With regard to the latter scheme of work, the student will find it a useful exercise to examine critically (*a*) the periods allotted to mathematics; (*b*) the partial or entire absence of handwork, Nature study, drawing, drill, and singing.

With regard to Secondary Schools for girls, reference should be made to the different types of curricula described in Miss Burstall's well-known book "English High Schools for Girls"; the student will there find a great deal of very valuable information on the subject. It will perhaps be sufficient here to describe briefly two interesting types—one a Day and Boarding School on the lines of a Boys' Public School, and the other a Municipal Secondary School.

St. Leonard's School, St. Andrews, has 277 scholars, of whom only 17 are day-girls; it is therefore practically a boarding-school. Pupils are admitted at the age of thirteen, and may remain in the school until nineteen. The Preparatory School consists of about 100 girls and small boys, who receive instruction in Scripture, reading, writing, arithmetic, geometry, algebra, English literature, history, geography, Latin, French, drawing, Nature-study, Swedish drill, dancing, singing, and handwork. In the Senior School the curriculum covers a course of four years. The Sixth Form is not a form for teaching purposes; the pupils have completed the ordinary curriculum, and are either preparing for certain higher examinations or receive instruction in the Lower Sixth; they are also closely concerned with the government of the school. The rest of the school is classified as Lower V., V., Upper V., and Lower VI., each form consisting of two, three, or even four parallel divisions, determined chiefly by proficiency in English subjects. The form subjects are Scripture, English, and history, most of the other subjects being taken in "sets." The Fourth Division in any Form consists of girls who are unable to benefit from the ordinary school course, but are educable if the education is not transmitted too exclusively through the medium of books. For these girls a scheme of study is provided which includes one foreign language, no mathematics

except arithmetic and some geometrical drawing, English, handwork (including wood-carving and modelling), drawing, music, Dalcroze eurhythmics, dancing, and gardening.

The table on p. 134 shows the subjects taught to the greater number of pupils and the average number of hours given weekly to each subject.

In addition to the subjects shown, Greek is taught to 17 and German to 17 pupils, both languages being usually begun in the first year. Latin is taken by 123 and French by 256 pupils.

The non-literary part of the school, found in $V._4$, Upper $V._4$, and Lower $VI._3$, learn French, but not Latin; arithmetic, but not algebra or geometry; a little botany, but not physics or chemistry. Forms $V._4$ and Upper $V._4$ fill in the free time with ear-training, eurhythmics, elocution, modelling, geometrical drawing, sewing and gardening; Lower $VI._3$ with ear-training and elocution, cookery, laundry, housewifery and dressmaking, shorthand, typewriting and hygiene.

We may conclude this short account of Secondary School curricula with a description of a large municipal school for girls in which the principle of free advanced education for those capable of profiting by it receives generous application. The total number of scholars is 540, of whom 175, or 32 per cent., are holders of scholarships.

The Junior School consists of Forms I., II., and III.; the Middle of Form IV. and Lower V.; and the Upper of Forms Upper V. and VI. Fee-paying scholars are admitted at the age of ten, Scholarship children at about eleven and a half. The curriculum is so formed that during the school course each girl studies the ordinary English subjects, at least one foreign language, mathematics, and science (natural, physical, domestic). Before entering the Third Forms girls are classified as follows:

	Lower V.			V.				Upper V.				Lower VI.			
	Lower V.3.	*Lower V.2.*	*Lower V.1.*	*V.4.*	*V.3.*	*V.2.*	*V.1.*	*Upper V.4.*	*Upper V.3.*	*Upper V.2.*	*Upper V.1.*	*Lower VI.3.*	*Lower VI.2.*	*Lower VI.1.*	*VI.*
Average Age.	14·4	14·3	14·2	15·1	15·4	15·4	15	16·3	16·2	16·3	15·9	17·6	16·9	17·2	18·5
English	3	3	3	4	4	2	2	4	2	2	2	2	2	1–3	Examinations and Administrative Work.
History	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	—	2	2–5	
Scripture	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1–2	1–2	
French	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4–6	4	4	2–4	4	2–5	
Latin	4	4	4	—	4	4	4	—	4	4	4–5	—	4	4–5	
Arithmetic	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	3	1	1	1	—	1	1	
Algebra	2	2	2	—	2	2	2	—	2	2	2	—	1–2	1–6	
Geometry	2	2	2	—	2	2	2	—	2	2	2	—	1–2	1–4	
Botany	1	1	1	—	—	—	—	2	2	2	3	—	3	—	
Physics	2	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	—	—	2–5	
Chemistry	—	—	—	—	2	2	2	—	—	—		—	5		
Geography	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	—	3	—	

A.—Girls of good mental and physical development, who may stay five years longer in the school and of whom the best may go on to the University.

B.—Girls of fairly good ability, who may leave at the age of sixteen. The aim of the majority would be to enter a Training College for Elementary Teachers, or the Civil Service. Some may enter the school in this division at the age of thirteen as Supplementary Junior Scholars.

C.—Girls of poor physique or of poor previous training or of late mental development. Here domestic science precedes the formal study of mathematics.

The classification just described is neither rigid nor necessarily permanent; girls pass from one division to another when it is seen to be desirable.

Division A consists of Upper III., Upper IV., Lower V.A, Upper V (Matriculation), and VI.

The following table shows the courses followed in the different forms:

	A.	B.	C.
Form I. ,, II.	Scripture, English, French, History, Geography, Arithmetic and Practical Geometry, Natural Science, Drawing, Singing, Needlework, Handwork, Physical Exercises and Games.		
,, III.	The above; Algebra and Deductive Geometry.	The above; Algebra and Deductive Geometry.	The above; Gardening.
,, IV.	The above; Latin or German.	The above; German (for some).	The above; Domestic Science.
,, V.	The above: Latin or German, Domestic Science.	The above; German (for some), Domestic Science.	The above; Algebra, Deductive Geometry, or Domestic Science.
,, Upper V. ,, VI.	The above; Spanish German, or Greek.		

New pupils entering at the age of thirteen, with no knowledge of French, join the German beginners and take no French.

The table given on p. 137 indicates the number of hours weekly given to the various subjects of the curriculum.

In this school a tutorial system is employed for the girls of quicker intelligence. When in any particular subjects these pupils make advance beyond their class-mates, instead of working ahead or at another subject in the same class-room under the same teacher, they are sent into the hall, where they may read any subject they wish, making use of the library to the extent desired. The subject studied need not be definitely in the school curriculum; it may, for example, be astronomy, biography, invention, etc. Two mistresses are in charge of this work, acting as tutors, suggesting courses, giving essays, and in general guiding the reading. The system is favourable to the slower girl, whose teacher has more time to devote to her, and also to the quicker girl, who is thus emancipated from a deadening routine and makes a steady advance throughout her course instead of waiting for the end of her school career for an advanced course. Liberal financial arrangements, allowing for the purchase of books and for extra teachers, are needed for such a scheme.

Subjects.	2β.	2α.	2A.	*Lower Remove.*	3β.	3α.	3A.	4β.	4α.	4A.	*Lower* 5β.	*Lower* 5α.	*Lower* 5A.	*Upper* 5β.	*Upper* 5α.	*Upper* 5A.	6.
English	2·40	2·40	2·40	2·40	2·40	2	2·40	2	2·40	2	2·40	2·40	2·40	2·40	3·20	3·20	3·20
Geography ..	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	2·0	1·20	2·0	2·0	2·0	—
History	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	2·0	2·0	2·0	—
French	3·20	3·20	3·20	2·0	3·20	3·20	3·20	2·40	2·40	2·40	—	2·0 or Prep.	2·0	2·40	2·0	5·20	1·20
German	—	—	—	—	—	—	—				1·20	2·40 or Prep.	2·0	—	—	—	1·20
Latin	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2·40	—	—		—	—	—	2·40
Spanish	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4·0
Drawing	1·20	1·20	1·20	2·0	1·20	0·40	1·20				1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	—	—	—
Needlework ..	0·40	0·40	0·40	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20				—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Science	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	5·20	5·20	5·20	0·40	1·20	—	—	2·40	1·20	—
Chemistry ..	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	0·40	—	—	—	—
Botany	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	—	—	—	1·20	—	0·40	1·20	—	1·20	—
Gymnastics ..	1·20	2·0	2·0	1·20	2·0	2·0	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	0·40	0·40	0·40	0·40	0·40	0·40	0·40
Games	0·40	—	—	—	—	—	—	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20
Scripture ..	0·40	0·40	0·40	0·40	0·40	0·40	0·40	0·40	0·40	0·40	0·40	0·40	0·40	0·40	0·40	0·40	0·40
Mathematics ..	2·40	3·20	4·0	3·20	3·20	3·20	3·20	2·40	2·40	2·40	3·20	2·40	2·40	2·40	3·20	2·40	1·20 Book-keeping
Preparation ..	2·40	3·20	2·40	2·0	1·20	2·0	1·20	3·20	2·40	3·20	6·0	—	3·20	4·0	3·20	2·0	—
Singing	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	1·20	0·40	0·40	0·40	0·40	—	—	—	—	—	—
Voluntary ..	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	0·40	0·40	—	0·40	—	0·40	—	—	—
Mending	0·40	0·40	0·40	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Handwork ..	0·40	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2·0 Economics

CHAPTER IX

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL—TIME-TABLES

THE time-table is a symbol of the teacher's self-control and method, the raw assertion of the economic and psychological necessity for regularity and variety in the educational process. It follows as the next step in the organisation of studies after decisions have been reached as to the elements of the curriculum and their relative values, and cannot be intelligently constructed until that formidable question has been settled. The good teacher will not regard the time-table as a task-master, as railway officials do their time-tables. It differs in at least one important respect from a railway time-table in that it has not to be slavishly or meticulously obeyed. If a lesson extends three minutes beyond the scheduled time nothing is lost; if it finishes for various reasons three minutes before, some gain may even accrue. It is, in fact, a mentor and not a master. Necessary to the teacher, it is equally necessary to the pupil. It reduces the promiscuous picking up of knowledge to orderly acquisition; it helps to form habits of order which may function in the pupil's after-school studies and perhaps in the general activities of his life.

The curricula and time-tables of French schools have for many years been entirely in the hands of the administrative officials, who at one time could boast that they knew what every scholar in France was occupied in doing at any given moment. In England the head-teacher frames his own time-table, subject only to the approval of the inspectors of the Local Education Authority, if there are any,

and of the Board of Education. When, as sometimes happens, he depends overmuch upon his own experience, and makes no use of the trials and failures of others, calling to his help none of the proved facts of psychology, he may construct a time-table the value of which is much diminished by his blunders. The object of this chapter is, therefore, to put before the teacher some of the most essential facts which may help him to perform this part of his function in as scientific a manner as our present knowledge permits.

Just as the curricula of various types of Elementary Schools vary according to their aims and purposes, so will the time-table. We have seen that for children up to twelve years of age the variation is small, so small that it appeared desirable and even necessary to lay down a general outline of fundamentals. From that age the variations become greater and more numerous, so that it was even found essential to have different types of schools, such as Higher Grade, Higher Elementary, and Central Schools. Moreover, in the ordinary Elementary Schools, after the age of twelve, children need instruction which will vary somewhat according to the type of life they are preparing to lead.

At the present time Elementary Education is organised in the light of the fact that for the great mass of children education is finished at fourteen. When, as will soon be the case, this education is continued up to seventeen and eighteen, the organisation of the Elementary Schools will meet with corresponding changes. We shall, however, deal with things as they are now.

The first matter which has to be settled is the amount of time to be given to each subject or branch of a subject. This will vary according to the value attached to its nature and its difficulty. Enough has been said in a preceding chapter on the first of these points. With regard to the

second, it is clear that some subjects, such as drawing and needlework, and in fact nearly all those which involve manual dexterity, require longer periods, partly because the work is far less fatiguing than more purely mental or book work, and partly because the actual outlay of time produces smaller results, and completion or approximation to completion of the work is desirable for the purpose of comprehension and interest. Such occupations often demand, also, the distribution and collection of a large amount of material and apparatus, and a loss of valuable time and energy would result from placing numerous short periods in the school time-table.

Lessons involving mental strain or concentrated attention must have shorter periods allocated to them. It is quite true that a skilled teacher, by giving variety of treatment and employment, can and does impart instruction in these subjects so as to minimise and even avoid anything approaching mental strain. But the average teacher must always be kept in mind in dealing with organisation if the general success of the school work is to be ensured. Hence, in subjects such as mathematics, grammar, or reading lessons to younger children, frequent and short periods should be the rule.

The amount of time given to each subject will also vary according to the stage of development and knowledge reached by the pupil. The younger the pupil, the less time will be allotted to work requiring continuous attention. As he develops, such subjects may occupy greater portions of the time-table. More generally, as it is natural for young children's attention to change its direction frequently, all the school activities for such pupils should engage shorter periods than those for older scholars. The mechanical will loom larger and the intellectual smaller, but both will involve shorter lessons.

With these indications supplied by a study of the child's

nature, it is possible to assign an approximate division of time to the many school occupations. Under present regulations the infant department of most ordinary Elementary Schools has twenty-five and the upper departments twenty-seven and a half hours per week at their disposal.

The considerations which will affect decisions as to the distribution of the lessons over the week's time-table are in general far less difficult than those used when framing curricula. In the latter case, as we have seen, the ultimate aim and purpose of education must be considered; in the former it is largely a question of common-sense expediency—except, however, in one point. Common sense has not been able to fix upon the period during which the mass of school-children are at their freshest and best. Even experimental psychology speaks on the subject in an uncertain way. Some teachers have cast longing eyes upon the time devoted to Bible instruction, and have wished that the early morning hour devoted to it could be used for more difficult subjects, and that the Bible instruction might be given at a time less precious but equally suitable. They assume that the best moments for hard mental work are those of the first hour at school. The general tendency, however, of the results of psychological enquiry has been to cast discredit on this assumption, and to place the best period for work somewhat later in the morning. Mental freshness, it appears, does not begin at a maximum and gradually decrease until a minimum is reached. The middle of the afternoon may even show superiority over the later parts of the morning. For the complete solution of this problem we still have to await more extensive investigation. In the meantime we may be tolerably certain that for the great majority of our scholars the time best fitted for close mental application is roughly from one and a half to two hours after the open-

ing of morning school. On the whole, too, the morning work is more valuable than that of the afternoon, although for children there are probably parts of the afternoon, not too near the lunch hour, superior in work value to the last part of the morning. The prevalent uncertainty with regard to this matter has produced the present rough-and-ready rule that the theoretical subjects are dealt with best in the morning and practical subjects in the afternoon, with the further rule, by no means, however, consistently followed, that studies difficult in the sense that they require unusual or prolonged mental effort should be undertaken in the middle part of the morning.

If he teacher is to do his best work, provision must also be made in the time-table for alternating the easy and the difficult lessons. A series of oral lessons, or even two, given one immediately after the other, involves a strain upon the voice and attention of the teacher which is inimical to the best interests of the class. It is not an altogether rare thing to find a history lesson following a literature lesson, and a singing lesson following the history lesson. The error occurs most frequently in the afternoon lessons, in which the time-table constructor's attention has been directed too entirely to the necessity for easing the strain upon the pupils. In some lessons, too, such as handwork, it has been wrongly assumed that the teacher's part is almost purely passive, but in practice it is found that the teacher, especially the young teacher, finds such lessons a considerable strain. The distribution and collection of apparatus without disorder; the meticulous directions for the work, without which no presentable result is obtained; and the individual guidance necessitated by the presence of abnormally slow children, all combine in inexperienced hands to make the lesson very fatiguing to the teacher. A singing lesson, again, from a certain lofty point of view, involves no strain; in practice it may

mean a theory lesson to an abnormally large class, or choral work with two or three classes combined. In the first case the lesson is difficult and exacting, and in the second the numbers involve a considerable tax on the teacher's energy. In the physical exercises, too, the use of the voice fatigues the teacher and makes it difficult to follow on with some other oral lesson. So far as the teacher is concerned, it is probable that afternoon lessons are a much greater strain than morning lessons; hence great care should be taken that they should be distributed in a way that economises the energy both of the pupils and of the teacher.

In schools which do not have separate rooms for all the classes some attention will have to be given to the disturbing effects of some lessons upon neighbouring classes. A reading lesson, for example, could scarcely proceed smoothly if the next class were engaged in choral singing. A thrilling literature or history lesson might make it difficult for another class to work at arithmetic. The constructor of the time-table will therefore find it necessary to have before him a plan of the school with the position of the classes marked.

We will now proceed to give a few examples of school time-tables actually in use.

I.—TIME-TABLE OF THE INFANTS' DEPARTMENT OF A LARGE SCHOOL.

MORNING.

	Class.	Grade.	9.0–9.15	9.15–9.40		9.40–9.55	9.55–10.30		10.30–10.45	10.45–11.15	11.15–11.35		11.35–12.0.
MONDAY.	1	A. 1A.	Assembly, Registration, and Prayers.	Texts and Old Test.	Final Marking and Closing Registers.	Recitation.	Reading			Number.	Singing.		Writing.
	2	A. 1B.		,, ,,		Physical Exs.	,,			,	Comp. or Act Story.		,,
	3	A. 1C.		,, ,,		,,				,,	Singing.		,,
	4	A. 1D.		,, ,		,,	,			,,	Nature Talk.		,,
							9.55–10.20	10.20–10.30		10.45–11.10	11.10–11.35		11.35–12.0
	5	Gr. IIIA.		,, ,,		Singing.	Reading.	Recitation.		Number.	Printg. or Writg.		Games in Hall.
	6	Gr. IIIB.		,, ,,		Physical Exs.	,,	,,		,, Games.	Singing.		Writing.
	7	Gr. IIIC.		,, ,,		Singing.	,,	,,		,, G. or Illus.	Nature Talk.		,,
							9.55–10.15	10.15–10.30		10.45–11.0	11.0–11.20	11.20–40	11.40–12.0
	8	Gr. IIA.		Hymns and Old Test.		Numb. Games.	Reading.	Singing.		Nature Talk	Drawing.	Word-Bg.	Writg. or Printg.
	9	Gr. IIB		,, ,,		,	,,	,,		Games in Hall.	,,	,,	,,
	10	Gr. IIC.		,, ,		,,	,,	,,		Games in Hall.	,,	Nature.	,,
TUESDAY.	1	A. IA.		Hymns in Hall.		Physical Exs.	Number.			Reading.	Nature Talk.		Writing or Comp.
	2	A. IB.		,, ,,		,,	,,			,,	Singing.		,,
	3	A. IC.		Texts and New Test.		Nature Talk.	,,			,,	Writg. or Comp.		Games in Hall.
	4	A. ID.		,, ,,		Singing.	,,			,,	Nature or Obs.		Writing or Comp.
						9.40–9.55	9.55–10.20	10.20–10.30		10.45–11.10	11.10–11.35		11.35–12.0
	5	Gr. IIIA.		,, ,,		Singing.	Number.	Drawing.		Reading.	Nature or Obs.		Writing.
	6	Gr. IIIB.		,, ,,		,,	,,	,,		,,	,,		,,
	7	Gr. IIIC.		,, ,,		Physical Exs.	,,	Printing.		,,	Singing.		,,
	8	Gr. IIA.		Hymns and New Test.		Recitation.	Reading.	Nature.		Games.	Number.	Singing.	Stick-laying.
	9	Gr. IIB.		,, ,,		,,	,,	,,		,,	,, Illus.	,,	Figures or Writg.
	10	Gr. IIC.		,, ,,		,,	,,	,,		Singing.	Games.	Word-Bdg.	Stick-laying.

WEDNESDAY.	1	A. IA.	Assembly Registration, and Prayers.	Texts and New Test.	Final Marking and Closing Registers.	Physical Exs.	Reading.		Number.	Nature Talk.	Writing or Comp.
	2	A. IB.		,, ,,		Topic Drawg.	,,		,,	Writing.	Games in Hall.
	3	A. IC.		Hymns in Hall.		Physical Exs.	,,		,,	Nat. Lesson.	Writing or Comp.
	4	A. ID.		,, ,,		,,	,,		,,	,,	,,
						9.40–9.55	9.55–10.20	10.20–10.30	10.45–11.10	11.10–11.35	11.35–12.0
	5	Gr. IIIA.		Old Testament.		Physical Exs.	Reading.	Drawing.	Numb. Games.	Singing.	Writing or Figs.
	6	Gr. IIIB.		,,		Singing.	,,	Printing.	,, ,,	Recitation.	Design.
	7	Gr. IIIC.		,,		Physical Exs.	,,	Recitation.	,, or Fig.	Drawing.	Writing.
	8	Gr. IIA.		Hymns and Old Test.		Games.	Reading.	Singing.	Numb. Ill.	Recitation. Orig. Drg.	Writing or Print.
	9	Gr. IIB.		,, ,		Singing.	,,	Recitation.	Games in Hall.	Number. ,,	Stick-laying.
	10	Gr. IIC.		,, ,,		Games.	,,	Singing.	Numb. Ill.	Games. ,,	Writing or Print.
THURSDAY.	1	A IA.		Old Testament.		Physical Exs.	Number.		Reading.	Singing.	Writing.
	2	A. IB.		,,		,,	,,		,,	Drawing.	Writing or Comp.
	3	A. IC.		,,		Singing.	,,		,,	Recitation.	,,
	4	A. ID.		,,		,,	,,		,,	Writing.	Games in Hall.
						9.40–9.55	9.55–10.20	10.20–10.30	10.45–11.10	11.10–11.35	11.35–12.0
	5	Gr. IIIA.		Hymns in Hall.		Physical Exs.	Number.	Recitation.	Reading.	Drawing.	Writing.
	6	Gr. IIIB.		,, ,,		,,	,,	Word-Bdg.	,,	Reading.	,,
	7	Gr. IIIC.		,, ,,		,,	,,	Recitation.	,,	Nature or Obs.	,,
	8	Gr. IIA.		Hymns and New Test.		Singing.	Reading.	Printing.	Gifts III. & IV. Tab.	Games. Questions	Writing or Print.
	9	Gr. IIB.		,, ,		,,	,,	,,	Games in Hall.	Gifts III. & IV. Tab. ,,	,,
	10	Gr. IIC.		, ,,		,,	,,	,,	Number.	,, Recitation.	,,
FRIDAY.	1	A. IA.		New Testament.		Singing.	Reading.		Number.	Writing or Comp.	Games in Hall.
	2	A. IB.		,,		Physical Exs.	,,		,,	Nature Talk.	Writing or Comp.
	3	A. IC.		,,		,,	,,		,,	Singing.	,,
	4	A. ID.				,	,,		,,	,,	,,
						9.40–9.55	9.55–10.20	10.20–10.30	10.45–11.10	11.10–11.35	11.35–12.0
	5	Gr. IIIA.		,,		Physical Exs.	Reading.	Printing.	Number.	Nature or Obs.	Design.
	6	Gr. IIIB.		,,		,,	,,	Recitation.	,,	Composition.	Writing.
	7	Gr. IIIC.		,,		,,	,,	Printing.	,,	Singing.	Nat. Talk. Drg.
	8	Gr. IIA.		Hymns in Hall.		Games.	Reading.	Singing.	Printing.	Number. Nat. Talk.	Writg. or Printg.
	9	Gr. IIB.		,, ,,		,,	,	,,	,,	,, or Qstn.	Printing.
	10	Gr. IIC.		,, ,,		,,	,,	,,	Games in Hall.	, Nat. Talk.	Writg. or Printg.

I.—TIME-TABLE OF THE INFANTS' DEPARTMENT OF A LARGE SCHOOL—*Continued.*

AFTERNOON.

	Class.	Grade.	2.0–2.15		2.15–2.40	2.40–2.55	2.55–3.5	3.5–3.30	3.30–4.0
Monday.	1	A. Ia.	Assembly and Registration.	Final Marking and Closing Registers.	G. Knitting.	Word Bdg. or Silent Rdg.		Drawing.	Games in Hall.
	2	A. Ib.	Optional.		B. Paper Cuttg. or Toy-making.	,, ,,		Singing in Hall.	Nat. or Obs. / Drawing.
	3	A. Ic.			G. Knitting.	,, ,,		Paper Ctg. or Raffia.	Nat. Talk. / Comp. or Actg. Stories
	4	A. Id.			B. Drawing.	,, ,,		,,	Singing. / ,,
								3.5–3.25	3.25–3.35 / 3.35–4.0
	5	Gr. IIIa.			G. Knitting.	,, ,,		Paper Cutting.	Singing. / Nature or Observation.
	6	Gr. IIIb.			B. Drawing	Questions.		,,	Word Bdg. / ,,
	7	Gr. IIIc.			Word Building. / Recitation.	Games in Hall.		Story or Picture.	Singing. / Paper Foldg. or Mdg.
	8	Gr. IIa.			Games in Hall. / Singing.	Paper Tearing.		Recitation.	Singing. / Picture or Composition.
	9	Gr. IIb.			Nature. / ,,	,, ,,		,,	,, ,,
	10	Gr. IIc.			Acting Stories. / ,,	,, ,,		,,	,, ,,
Tuesday.					2.15–2.35	2.35–2.55.		3·5–3.25	3.25–3.40 / 3.40–4.0
	1	A. Ia.			Singing in Hall.	Painting.		Geography.	Recitation. / Comp. or Actg. Stories.
					2.15–2.30				
	2	A. Ib.			Word Building.			Nat. or Observatn.	Games in Hall.
	3	A. Ic.			,,	,,		History. / Recitation.	Design.
	4	A. Id.			Recitation.	,,		Modelling. / History.	Drawing.
					2.15–2.35	2.35-2.55			
	5	Gr. IIIa.			Word Building.	Painting.		Games in Hall. / Recitation.	Story or Picture.
	6	Gr. IIIb.			Painting.	Games in Hall.		Recitation. / Word Bdg.	,, ,,
	7	Gr. IIIc.			Word Building.	Painting.		,, / Compositn.	Drawing.
	8	Gr. IIa.			Word Building. / Singing.	Drawing.		Modelling.	Story.
	9	Gr. IIb.			Educational Toys.			Educational Toys.	
	10	Gr. IIc.			Word Building. / Singing.	Drawing.		Modelling.	Story.

Wednesday.	1	A. Ia.	Assembly and Registration.	Optional.	Final Marking and Closing Registers.	Drawing in Hall.	Paper Cutting or Raffia.
	2	A. Ib.				Modelling.	Recitation.
	3	A. Ic.				Geography.	Modelling.
	4	A. Id.				Word Building.	Games in Hall.
	5	Gr. IIIa.				Story Drawing.	Acting Stories.
	6	Gr. IIIb.				,, ,,	,, ,,
	7	Gr. IIIc.				Paper Cutting.	Nature or Observation.
	8	Gr. IIa.				Educational Toys.	
	9	Gr. IIb.				Word Building.	Singing. / N. Games. / Drawing. / Nature.
	10	Gr. IIc.				,,	
Thursday.	1	A. Ia.				Questions.	G. Knitting.
	2	A. Ib.				,,	B. Drawing.
	3	A. Ic.				,,	G. Knitting.
	4	A. Id.				,,	B Toy-making.
	5	Gr. IIIa.				,,	G. Knitting
	6	Gr. IIIb.				Word Building.	B. Toy Mkg. or Paper Cutting.
	7	Gr. IIIc.				,,	Design.
	8	Gr. IIa.				Singing in Hall.	Acting Stories. / Recitation.
	9	Gr. IIb.				,,	,, ,,
	10	Gr. IIc.				,,	Games in Hall.
Friday.	1	A. Ia.				Educational Toys or Optional.	
	2	A. Ib.				,,	,,
	3	A. Ic.				,,	,,
	4	A. Id.				,,	,,
		Gr. IIIa.				,,	,,
	5						
	6	Gr. IIIb.				,,	,,
	7	Gr. IIIc.				,,	,,
						2.15–2.30	2.30–2.55
	8	Gr. IIa.				Original Drawing.	Story.
	9	Gr. IIb.				Games in Hall.	,,
	10	Gr. IIc.				Free Occupation.	,,

Singing.	Nat. Talk	History.			
Design.	Singing.	,,			
Singing in Hall	Topic Drawg.	Recitation.			
,, ,,	Recitation.	Drawing.			
Modelling.	Recitation.	Nature or Questions.			
Story.	Games in Hall.				
Modelling.	Singing. / Educational Toys.	Acting Stories.			
Paper Folding.					
Paper Folding.	Questions.	Story. / Composition.			
Modelling.	Nat. Talk.	Recitation.			
Raffia or Paper Ctg.	Recitation.	Geography.			
Nature or Observation.	Games in Hall.				
Design.	Singing.	Geography.			
Word Building.	Oral Comp.	Singing.			
Modelling.	Singing.	Nature or Observation.			
Games in Hall.	,,	Questions.			
Design.	,,	Nature or Observation.			
,,	No. Games.	,, ,,			
	Educational Toys.				
Design.		Story.			
Singing. / Recitation.		,,			
Story.		Drawing.			
Recitation.	Story.	Orig. or Topic Drg.			
Paper Foldg. or Modelling.	Recitation.	Original Drawing.			
,,	Singing.	,,			
Story.	Recitn.	,,			
Games in Hall.		Paper Folding.			
Modelling.		Original Drawing.			
Recitation.	Singing.	Original Drawing.			

Red Tickets.

ANALYSIS OF PRECEDING TIME-TABLE.

Subjects.	Time in Minutes for each Grade per Week.									
	St. I.A.	*St. I.B.*	*St. I.C.*	*St. I.D.*	*Gr. III.A.*	*Gr. III.B.*	*Gr. III.C.*	*Gr. II.A.*	*Gr. II.B.*	*Gr. II.C.*
(*a*) English Composition (Oral)	20	20	20	20	40	45	45	25	25	45
(*b*) Stories	25	25	25	25	40	45	55	50	50	75
(*c*) Reading	165	165	165	165	125	125	125	100	100	100
(*d*) Recitation	45	40	45	40	50	60	55	65	60	65
(*e*) Word-building	15	30	30	30	55	55	55	35	35	50
(*f*) Hand-writing	120	120	120	120	110	110	120	110	110	95
Number ..	160	160	160	160	125	125	125	70	75	65
Drawing ..	40	45	45	50	65	70	75	75	80	55
Observation Lessons	85	80	85	75	115	90	105	70	70	75
Physical Exercises	100	100	100	95	95	95	105	125	110	130
Singing ..	95	90	80	95	80	80	85	115	110	125
Geography	20	20	20	20	—	—	—	—	—	—
History ..	20	20	20	20	—	—	—	—	—	—
Occupations	95	90	90	90	105	105	105	140	155	140
Scripture ..	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
Recreation	130	130	130	130	130	130	130	155	155	155
Registration, etc.	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total ..	1,500	1,500	1,500	1,500	1,500	1,500	1,500	1,500	1,500	1,500

II.—TIME-TABLE OF THE BOYS' DEPARTMENT OF

MORNING.

	Class No.	9.0–9.15	9.15–9.45.	9.45	9.45-10.30	10.30-10.45	10.45–11.15	11.15–12.0
MONDAY.	1	Assembly, Registration and Prayers.	Old Test.	Final Marking and Closing Registers.	Arith.	Play.	Composition.	Drawing.
	1B		,,		,,		Drill to 11.15.	Drawing.
	2		,,		,,		Composition.	Drawing.
	2B		,,		,,		Drawing to	11.40. Drill.
	3		,,		,,		Geography.	Spelling to 11.35. Drill.
	4		,,		,,		Geography.	Composition.
	5		,,		,, 10.15–		Singing.	Drawing.
	6		,,		,, 10.30		Composition.	Sing. Reading.
	7		,,		,, Drill.		Reading.	Comp. Spelling.
TUESDAY.	1		New Test.		Arith.	Play.	Drill to 11.15.	Science.
	1B		,,		,,		Organised Games.	
	2		,,		,,		Science to	11.40. Drill.
	2B		,,		,,		Reading.	Drawing.
	3		,,		,,		Geography.	Prac. Science.
	4		,,		,,		Singing.	Drawing.
	5		,,		,,		Geography.	Composition.
	6		,,		,,		Clay Modelling.	Reading.
	7		,,		,, Drill.		Clay Modelling.	Reading.
WEDNESDAY.	1		Memory.		Arith.	Play.	Drawing to	11.35. Comp.
	1B		,,		,,		Drill.	Drawing.
	2		,,		,,		Composition.	Drawing.
	2B		,,		,		Drawing to	11.40. Drill.
	3		,,		Organised Games.			
	4		,,		,		Geography.	English.
	5		,,		,,		Geography.	Cardboard Work.
	6		,				Drawing.	Reading.
	7		,,		,, Drill.		Drawing.	Reading.
THURSDAY.	1				Manual.	Play.		
	1B		Memory.		Arith.		Drawing to	11.40. Drill.
	2		Old Test.		,,		Drill to 11.5. Geog. to 11.40. Sing.	
	2B		,,		,,		Singing.	Drawing.
	3		,,		,,		Oral Composition.	Drawing.
	4		,,		,,		Singing.	English.
	5		,,		,,		Singing.	Comp. Reading.
	6		,,		,,		Singing.	Comp. Reading.
	7		,,		,,		Spelling.	Comp. Reading.
FRIDAY.	1		New Test.		Arith.	Play.	Hist. and Geog.	to 11.30. Comp.
	1B		,,		,,		Drawing. Drill.	Drawing.
	2		,,		Practical.		Readg. Drill.	Science to 11.35. Drill.
	2B		,,		,,		Paper Work.	
	3		,,		,,		Geog. Notes.	Comp. Reading.
	4		,,		,,		History.	Composition.
	5		,,		,,		Drawing.	Reading.
	6		,,		,,		Drawing.	Reading.
	7		,,		,, Drill.		Drawing.	Reading.

AFTERNOON.

2.0–2.15	2.15	2.15–2.50	2.50–3.20.	3.20–3.30	3.30–3.50	3.50–4.20	4.20–4.30
Rec. or Readg. Comp. to 2.45. Rec. or Readg. Mental Arith. Recitation. Recitation. Poetry. Mental Arith. Mental Arith.	Assembly and Registration. Final Marking and Closing Registers.	Hist. and Geog. Composition. History. Organised Drawg. to 2.40. Drill to 3.0. Science. Object Lesson. Object Lesson.	Singing. Singing. Singing. Games. Singing. Science. Drill. Writing. Singing.	Play.	Drill. Ment. or Prac. Arith. Writing. General to 4.0. History to 3.45. Spelling. Organised Spelling. Org. Games.	Reading. Literature. Geography. Reading. English. Reading. Games. Reading. History.	Prayers and Dismissal.
Mental Arith. Hygiene Talk Mental Arith. Hand Train- Mental Arith. Mental Arith. Mental Arith. Poetry. Poetry.		English Gram. to 2.30. Arithmetic. ing to 3.0. Arithmetic. History Notes. Maps. History to 2.40. Geography.	Arithmetic. Arithmetic. English. Drill. Singing. Geography. Spelling. Org. Games. Writing.	Play.	Writing. Eng. Railways. Reading. Dictation. Spelling. Reading. Dictation. Drill. Tables.	Maps. Silent Reading. Composition. Reading. Reading. Games. Reading. Geography. Reading.	
Rec. or Readg. Mental Arith. Mental Arith. Poetry. Poetry. Science to Mental Arith. Mental Arith.		Hist. and Geog. to 2.30. Org Singing. Science to 3.0. Drill to 2.40. 2.40. Drill 3.0 Object Lesson. History.	Singing. Composition. anised Writing. Drill. Science. Poetryto 3.20 Writing. Writing.	Ga Play.	Mental Arith. Hist. and Geog. mes. Recitation. Hist. } alterna- Geog. } tive. Spelling. Composition. Drill. Singing.	Reading. of Brit. Empire Reading. Reading. Reading. Reading. History. Reading.	
Mental Arith. Composition Mental Arith. Mental Arith. Mental Arith. Poetry. Poetry.		Org Ma History. to 2.40. Composition. Writing. Reading. Spell. Hndwk. Object Lesson.	anised nual Tr Composition. Drill. Maps. History. Dictation. Drill. Writing.	Ga ain Play.	mes. ing. Dra Hand Tr Dictation. Drill. History. Spelling. Tables.	wing. aining. Reading. Reading. Composition. Reading. Reading.	
Rec. or Readg. Composition Man Recitation. Poetry. Poetry. Poetry. Mental Arith. Mental Arith.	n	Science to 3.0. to 2.50. al and Writing. Drill to 2.35. Arithmetic. Writing. Composition. Transcription.	Drill. Hygiene Talk Hand a Drawing. Colour Work. Dictation. History. Geography. Singing.	nd Play.	Dra Poetry. Eye Tra Health Talks or Gen. Know. Spelling. Tables. Drill. Tables. Tables.	wing. Reading. ining. Silent Reading. Reading. Reading. Priv. Reading. Reading. Reading.	

ANALYSIS OF PRECEDING TIME-TABLE.

(*Giving Figures for Classes* 1, 3, *and* 7 *only.*)

Subject.	Class 1. (*Age* 13–14).	Class 3. (*Age* 11).	Class 7. (*Age* 7).
Composition	120	110	—
Composition and Spelling ..	—	—	75
Recitation or Reading ..	45	—	—
Reading	60	120	315
Recitation	—	45	30
Grammar	35	—	—
Writing	20	—	120
Dictation	—	20	—
Transcription	—	—	30
Spelling	—	60	—
Composition and Spelling ..	—	—	75
Total ..	280	355	645
History and Geography ..	110	160	110
Maps	30	30	—
Total	140	190	110
Science	90	90	—
Object Lessons	—	—	70
Total	90	90	70
Manual Work and Organised Games	215	—	—
Organised Games	—	175	20
Modelling	—	—	30
Total	215	175	50
Drill	70	75	75
Singing	60	60	80
Drawing	145	110	60
Arithmetic } Tables }	290	290	270 / 60
Total	565	535	545

Notes.—1. Class 1B is a group of boys from 11½ to 14 years of age, collected from the upper standards and regarded as dull, backward, and in many cases troublesome. Class 2B is a similar group of lads from 9 to 11½.

The head-teacher states that this combing out helps

discipline greatly, and raises the standard of work in the other classes. The view of the writer is that such groups should be regarded as composed of pupils not necessarily dull, but characterised by non-bookish and manual tendencies, and that the "troublesome" do not necessarily find their true home in such classes.

2. Class 1 is Standards VII. and Ex VII.; Class 2 is Standard VI., and so on to Class 7, which is Standard I.

We venture to use the preceding time-table and analysis for the purpose of indicating what we consider to be certain characteristics which do not appear to the writer to follow true pedagogic principles.[1]

1. The first thing which would naturally strike a student of this time-table is the great difference in the time spent in studying the various sides of English between on the one hand the upper and middle and on the other the lower part of the school. While the lowest class seems to have secured its needed quota, the other classes have come very short of it. Four or five hours per week is not sufficient. Ten hours is a much nearer indication of the true position English should take in the school.

2. At first sight it would appear that the large amount of time devoted in the seventh class to overcoming the technical difficulties of reading does not find its natural employment by the elder boys in the reading and study of literature. One would expect to find a much larger amount of time given in the higher classes to reaping the fruits of so much mechanical work done in the lower school.

3. Apparently the lowest class manual training occupies

[1] The courtesy with which various time-tables have been put at my disposal would be ill-requited if anonymity were not kept, or if I should venture to do more than indicate for the instruction of others where I think errors have been made. In any case time-tables are frequently heirlooms, and not the work of the head-teachers who have so kindly given me copies.

thirty minutes weekly; the third class has none, and the highest the whole of one morning. There is as much or more need that the younger boys should express themselves in this way. The middle class, again, has considerable time allotted for organised games, the lowest only twenty minutes. And a similar discrepancy exists in the case of drawing.

There is no need to criticise in further detail; but perhaps sufficient has been said to help the student to a further critical examination for himself.

We may next examine the time-table on pp. 156 and 157 of a school situated in a better-class London district, a school deservedly well known for the excellence of the work done and for its examination successes.

The table on p. 158 shows the apportionment of time to the various subjects, and allows of easy comparison with that of the preceding school.

We will note a few of the outstanding features of the following time-table:

1. The amount of time allotted to English in Class 1 is not great—only six hours weekly—more, however, than in the previous time-table. The disparity, too, between the time allotted to English in Class 1 and in Class 7 is rather striking. Here the younger children have the advantage in reading, recitation, writing, dictation and transcription, although we should expect to find the reduction or omission in the top class compensated by a larger amount of literature. It might also be argued that the sixty-five minutes for composition is too little.

2. The attention given to spelling seems to suggest that great care is taken to give a sound foundation. The effects of this regular work are probably to be seen in all the written exercises.

3. History and geography in the upper classes are given

more time than is usual, together more than half as much as is devoted to English.

4. Arithmetic always demands its full quota, and generally gets it. It might be suggested, not in particular reference to this time-table, but in general, that if the arithmetical side of geography, science, manual work, and drawing were fully developed, a corresponding diminution might be made in the time given to the formal arithmetic lesson.

5. It is refreshing to see that singing receives the attention it deserves.

6. This digest illustrates, as most Elementary School time-tables do, a peculiarity with regard to views concerning handwork. The lower and top departments of the school enjoy the benefits of this invaluable training, the middle of the school does not. This is an anomaly that should soon come to an end.

III.—TIME-TABLE OF AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL (BOYS'

MORNING.

	Class.	9.5	9.10	9.15 9.20 9.25 9.30 9.35 9.40	9.45 9.50 9.55 10.0 10.5 10.10 10.15 10.20 10.25 10.30 10.35 10.40 10.45	10.50 10.55 11.0	11.5 11.10	11.15 11.20 11.25 11.30 11.35 11.40 11.45 11.50 11.55 12.0
MONDAY.	1	Registration. Prayers.		Hymns and Repetition.	Cl. II., III., IV.—Art. Geography.	Recreation.	Spelling.	Arithmetic.
	2				Art and Drawing.		Art	and Drawing.
	3				Drill. | History.		,,	Arithmetic.
	4				English. | Drill.		,,	,,
	5				Cl. II.—M.T. Singing. | Maps.		,,	,,
	6				Transcription. | Geography.		,,	,,
	7				Transcription. | Recitation.		,,	,,
TUESDAY.	1			New Testament History.	Theoretical Science. | Drill.		,,	,
	2				Drill. | English.		Arith	metic.
	3				Geography. | Recitn.		Spelling.	,,
	4				Geography. | Recitation.		,,	,,
	5				Composition. | Geography.		,,	,,
	6				Singing. | Dictation.		,,	,,
	7				English. | Dictation.		,,	,,
WEDNESDAY.	1			Old Testament History.	Drill. | History.		,,	,,
	2				Geography. | Drill.		Arith	metic.
	3				Cl. V., VI., VII.—M.T. Theoretical Science. | Oral Compn.		Spelling.	,,
	4				Geography. | Dictation.		,,	,,
	5				Composition. | Reading.		Recitation.	,,
	6				Science. | Writing.		,,	,,
	7				Geography. | Writing.		Spelling.	,
THURSDAY.	1			New Testament History.	Practical Science.		,,	,,
	2				Cl. I.—M.T. Singing. | Recitn.		Arith	metic.
	3				Singing. | Recitn.		,,	,,
	4				History. | Recitation.		,,	,,
	5				Object Lesson. | Drill.		,,	,,
	6				Dictation. | History.		,,	,,
	7				Science. | Dictation.		,,	,,
FRIDAY.	1			Old Testament History.	History.		,,	,,
	2				Composition.		,,	,,
	3				Cl. III.—M.T. Hist. Notes. | Arith.		,,	Practical Science.
	4				Drill. | Science.		,,	Arithmetic.
	5				Geography. | Dictation.		,,	,,
	6				Oral Comp. | Science.		Reading.	,,
	7				History. | Dictation.		,,	,,

Swimming.—At the Baths—Mondays,
At the Park—Tuesdays

DEPARTMENT) IN A GOOD CLASS NEIGHBOURHOOD.

AFTERNOON.

	2.5	2.10	2.15	2.20	2.25	2.30	2.35	2.40	2.45	2.50	2.55	3.0	3.5	3.10	3.15	3.20	3.25	3.30	3.35	3.40	3.45	3.50	3.55	4.0	4.5	4.10	4.15	4.20	4.25	4.30
Cl. V., VI.—M.T.	Arithmetic.									Practical Science.									Recreation.		Reading.									
	(a) Practical Science. (b) Singing.									History.											Reading.									
	Singing.									Reading.											Composition.									
	Literature.									Science.											Arithmetic.									
	Drawing.												History.								Reading.				Drill.					
	Drawing.												English.								Drill.				Reading.					
	Science.								Reading.						Drill.						Recitation.				History.					
Cl. I.—Art.									Drawing.												Drawing.				Reading.					
	(a) Arithmetic. (b) Drawing.									English Exercises.											Drawing.				Dictation.					
	Literature.									Geometry.					Drill.						English.									
	Drawing.														Composition.						Singing.						Spellg.			
	Object Lesson.									Dictation.					Recitation.						Reading.									
	Handwork.												Reading.								History.				Drill.					
	Singing.									Reading.					Recitation.						Drill.				Writing.					
Cl. IV—M.T.	Recitation.												Singing.								Literature.									
	Theoretical Science.												History.								Literature.									
									Drawing.												Drawing.				Drill.					
	Reading.												History.								English.						Spellg.			
	English.								Writing.						Drill.						Singing.				Recitation.					
	Singing.												Composition.								Drill.				Recitation.					
	Drawing.														Reading.						Singing.				Spelling.					
Cl. II.—M.T.	Singing.									Geography.											English.									
	Arithmetic.									Maps.											Practical Science.									
	Maps.									Composition.											Reading.									
	Drawing.												Composition.								Drill.				Reading.					
	,,												Reading.								History.						Recitation.			
	,,												Geography.								Composition.						Spelling.			
	,,												Reading.								Composition.						Drill.			
Cl. III.—M.T.	Composition.									Drill.											Reading.									
	Recitatn.								Drill.						Geography.						Reading.									
	Arithmetic.												History Notes.								Practical Science.									
	Geography and Maps.												Singing.								Reading.									
	Composition.								English.						Reading.						Lantern (History or Geography).									
	English Exercises.												Dictation.								Reading and Recitation.									
	English Exercises.						Oral Compn.						Geography.								Reading and Recitation.									

4.0-4.30; Thursdays, 11.30-12.0.
9.0-9.40.

ANALYSIS OF PRECEDING TIME-TABLE.

Age.	13–14.	12–13.	11–12.	10–11.	9–10.	8–9.	7–8.
Subject.	*Class* 1.	*Class* 2.	*Class* 3.	*Class* 4.	*Class* 5.	*Class* 6.	*Class* 7.
Prayers and Registration	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Scripture ..	150	150	150	150	150	150	150
Composition	65	75	80	105	95	100	80
Reading ..	65	65	80	125	150	160	185
Recitation ..	40	45	45	50	55	60	65
Writing ..	—	—	—	—	30	30	60
Dictation and Spelling	50	40	60	95	195	115	120
Literature } English }	45 95	45 75	50 60	50 70	— 75	— 80	— 60
Total ..	360	345	375	495	510	545	570
History } Geography }	210	220	200	190	190	80 80 160	70 70 140
Science or Object Drawing	95	105	105	80	85	75	70
Manual Work	140	140	140	—	—	—	—
Handwork ..	—	—	—	—	—	40	40
Drill	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
Singing ..	90	90	80	80	80	75	75
Drawing ..	120	120	120	120	120	120	120
Optional (Lantern, etc.)	—	—	—	50	30	—	—
Arithmetic ..	250	245	245	250	250	250	250
Recreation ..	125	125	125	125	125	125	125

Notes.—1. In this school "English" may be, and usually is, a literature lesson. The lessons denominated "Literature" are those given by the head-teacher.

2. The lowest class is Standard II., and the head-teacher states that he does not find the fifty minutes for mental and written work in arithmetic too long.

IV.—TIME-TABLE OF THE BOYS' DEPARTMENT OF AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL IN MIXED NEIGHBOURHOOD.

		A.M.						P.M.			
	Class.	9.10–9.40	9.40–9.50	9.50–10.30	10.30–10.40	10.40–11.0	11.0–11.30	11.30–12.0	2.5–2.50	2.50–3.35	3.35–3.45	3.45–4.30
MONDAY.	VII.	Scripture.	Word Building or Spelling.	Arithmetic.	Recess.	Drill.	Geog. 11.40.	Lit.	Arith.	Literature.	Spelling. Recreation.	Comp.
	VI.					Drill	Hist. 11.30.	Lit.	Arith.	Comp.		Reading.
	V.A & B					Drill.	Geog.	Lit.	Arith.	Comp.		History.
	IV.					Lit. 11.10.	Gram. 11.40.	Drill.	Read. 2.35.	Music 3.5 Writg. 3.35		Science.
	III.					Music.	Geog. 11.30.	Dict.	Prac. Arith.	Reading.		Drill 4.5 Dict. 4.25
	II.A					Music.	Geog. 11.40.	Lit.	Handwork.	History.		Music 4.10 Drill 4.30
	II.B					Read.	Geog.	Lit.	Handwork.	Music 3.20 Read. 3.35		Drill 4.5 Hist. 4.30
TUESDAY.	VII.					Comp. 11.20.	Science.		Drawing.	Music.		Reading.
	VI.					Gram.	Read.	Comp.	,,	Music.		Science.
	V.A & B					Read. 11.20.	Science.		,,	Arith.		Comp.
	IV.					Drill.	Read. 11.20.	Handwk.	,,	Comp.		History.
	III.					Drill.	Read. 11.20.	Geog.	,,	Science.		History.
	II.A					Read. 11.10.	Gram. 11.40.	Drill.	,,	Comp.		Science.
	II.B					Read. 11.10.	Gram. 11.40.	Drill.	,,	Comp.		Science.
WEDNESDAY.	VII.					Drill.	Music.	Comp.	Arith.	History.		Reading.
	VI.					Drill.	Music.	Lit.	Comp.	Geography.		Reading.
	V.A & B					Drill.	Read.	Dict.	History.	Gram. 3.10 Music 3.35		Reading.
	IV.					History.	Dict.	Lit.	Lit. 2.20	Handwork.		Science.
	III.					Gram.	Dict.	Lit.	Lit. 2.20 Comp. 2.50	Music 3.10 Writ. 3.35		Comp.
	II.A					Read.	Dict.	History.	Lit. 2.50 Music 2.50	Writ. 3.5 Dict. 3.35		Reading.
	II.B					Writing.	Dict.	Read.	Lit. 2.30 Hist. 2.50	Hist. 3.10 Music 3.35		Reading.
THURSDAY.	VII.					Gram. 11.20.	Science.		Drawing.	Geography.		Comp.
	VI.					Gram. 11.20.	Composition.		,,	History.		Science
	V.A & B					Gram. 11.15.	Composition.		,,	Writ. 3.10 Lit. 3.35		Science.
	IV.					Read.	Dict. 11.20.	Geog.	,,	Writ. 3.5 Music 3.35		History.
	III.					Drill.	Read. 11.40.	Music.	,,	Science.		History.
	II.A					Read. 11.10.	Gram. 11.40.	Drill.	,,	Comp.		Science.
	II.B					Dict. 11.10.	Gram. 11.40.	Drill.	,,	Comp.		Science.
FRIDAY.	VII.					Drill.	Gram.	Lit.	Test.	History.		Literature.
	VI.					Drill.	Gram.	Dict.	Test.	Geography.		Literature.
	V.A & B					Drill.	Geog.	Read.	Test.	Lit. 3.10 Music 3.35		Literature.
	IV.					Comp.	Gram.	Read.	Test. 2.30 Drill 2.50	Comp.		Read. 4.5 Lit. 4.30
	III.					Gram.	Geog. 11.40.	Writing.	Test. 2.30 Handwork 2.35	Handwork.		,,
	II.A					Dict.	Geog. 11.40.	Writing.	,,	Handwork.		,,
	II.B					Dict.	Geog. 11.40.	Writing.	,,	Handwork.		,,

V.—TIME-TABLE OF THE GIRLS' DEPARTMENT OF

MORNING.

	Stds.	9.0-9.10	9.10-9.40	9.45	9.40-10.30	10.30-10.40	10.40-11.0	11.0-11.30	11.30-12.0
MONDAY.	VII.				Arithmetic.	Recreation.	Homewk. Test.	Grammar.	Singing.
	VI.				,,	,,	,,	Grammar.	Singing.
	V.				,,	,,	,,	Geography.	Geography.
	IV.				,,	,,	,,	Nat. Study.	Literature.
	III.				,,	,,	,,	History.	Literature.
	II.				,,	,,	,,	Composition.	History.
	I.A				,,	,,	Home Reading.	Reading.	History.
	I.B				,,	,,	,,	Reading.	Geography.
TUESDAY.	VII.	Assembly, Registration and Prayers.		Final Marking and Closing of Registers.	9.40-10.0 Lit. | 10.0-10.30 Sing.	Cookery	or Laundry	or House	wifery.
	VI.				,, | ,,	Recreation.	Homewk. Test.	Geography.	Geography.
	V.				Arithmetic.	,,	,,	History.	History.
	IV.				,,	,,	,,	Geography.	Geography.
	III.				,,	,,	,,	Literature.	Geography.
	II.				,,	,,	,,	Reading.	Geography.
	I.A				,,	,,	Home Reading.	Reading.	Geography.
	I.B				,,	,,	,,	Reading.	Drill.
WEDNESDAY.	VII.		Scripture.		Arithmetic.	Recreation.	Homewk. Test.	Nat. Study.	Nat. Study.
	VI.				,,	,,	,,	Drawing	Drawing.
	V.				,,	,,	,,	Drawing.	Drawing.
	IV.				,,	,,	,,	Literature.	Literature.
	III.				,,	,,	,,	Singing.	Singing.
	II.				,,	,,	,,	Drawing.	Drawing.
	I.A				,,	,,	Home Reading.	Singing.	Singing.
	I.B				,,	,,	,,	Composition.	Reading.
THURSDAY.	VII.				Arithmetic.	Recreation.	Homewk. Test.	History.	History.
	VI.				,,	,,	,,	Composition.	Composition.
	V.				,,	,,	,,	Nat. Study.	Nat. Study.
	IV.				,,	,,	,,	History.	Literature.
	III.				,,	,,	,,	Geography.	Reading of Geography.
	II.				,,	,,	,,	Reading.	Recitation.
	I.A				,,	,,	Home Reading.	Reading.	Handwork.
	I.B				,,	,,	,,	Org. Games.	Reading.
FRIDAY.	VII.				Arithmetic.	Recreation.	Homewk. Test.	Geography.	Geography.
	VI.				,,	,,	,,	History.	History.
	V.				,,	,,	,	Literature.	Literature.
	IV.				,,	,,	,,	History.	Reading of History
	III.				,,	,,	,,	History.	Literature.
	II.				,,	,,	,,	Reading.	Nat. Study.
	I.A				,,	,,	Home Reading.	Reading.	Nat. Study.
	I.B				,,	,,	,,	Reading.	History.

NOTE.—Teachers specialise in Art and Music, History and

AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL IN A POOR DISTRICT.

AFTERNOON.

2.0	2.0-2.30	2.15	2.30-3.0	3.0-3.20	3.20-3.30	3.30-4.0	4.0-4.25	4.30
	Needlework.		Needlework.	Literature.	Recreation.	Drill.	Reading of Geography.	
	Nat. Study.		Nat. Study.	Literature.	,,	Org. Games.	Literature.	
	Composition.		Composition.	Literature.	,,	Literature.	Drill.	
	Singing.		Singing.	Org. Games.	,,	Reading or	Geography.	
	Drawing.		Drawing.	Reading of Geography.	,,	Knitting.	Knitting.	
	Drill.		Writing.	Writing.	,,	Reading.	Reading.	
	Needlework.		Needlework.	Needlework.	,,	Reading.	Reading.	
	Knitting.		Writing.	Writing.	,,	Reading.	Reading.	
	Drawing.		Drawing.	Map Drawg.	Recreation.	Literature.	Literature.	
	Literature.		Literature.	Literature.	,,	Drill.	Reading of Geography.	
	Singing.		Singing.	Drill.	,,	Reading or	Geography.	
	Composition.		Composition.	Literature.	,,	Literature.	Drill.	
	Nat. Study.		Nat. Study.	Recitation.	,,	Org. Games.	Reading of History.	
	Needlework.		Needlework.	Needlework.	,,	Composition.	Composition.	
	Drawing.		Drawing.	Composition.	,,	Reading.	Reading.	
	Singing.		Singing.	Recitation.	,,	Reading.	Reading.	
Assembly and Registration.	Literature.	Final Marking and Closing of Registers.	Drill.	Literature.	Recreation.	Oral Compn.	Singing.	Prayers and Dismissal.
	Needlework.		Needlework.	Needlework.	,,	Literature.	Reading of History.	
	Needlework.		Needlework.	Needlework.	,,	Composition.	Literature.	
	Drawing.		Drawing.	Drill.	,,	Literature.	Nat. Study.	
	Composition.		Composition.	Literature.	,,	Reading of History.	Drill.	
	Composition.		Composition.	Spelling.	,,	Reading of	History.	
	Composition.		Home Readg.	Spelling.	,,	Drill.	Recitation.	
	Needlework.		Needlework.	Needlework.	,,	Reading.	Reading.	
	Needlework.		Needlework.	Org. Games.	Recreation.	Reading of History.	Literature.	
	Cookery		Laundry.		or	House	wifery.	
	History.		Reading of History.	Map Drawg.	Recreation.	Needlework.	Needlework.	
	Needlework.		Needlework.	Needlework.	,,	Composition.	Composition.	
	Needlework.		Needlework.	Needlework.	,,	Writing.	Writing.	
	Singing.		Singing.	Ment. Arith.	,,	Reading.	Drill.	
	Drill.		Knitting.	Knitting.	,,	Reading.	Reading.	
	Nat. Study.		Handwork.	Ment. Arith.	,,	Composition.	Composition.	
	Silent Readg. with Note-mkg.		Composition.	Composition.	Recreation.	Literature.	Literature.	
	,,		Drill.	Map Drawg.	,,	Needlework.	Needlework.	
	,,		Note-mkg. with Literature.	Org. Games.	,,	Literature.	Literature.	
	,,		,,	Literature.	,,	Needlework.	Needlework.	
	,,		Literature.	Literature.	,,	Oral Compn.	Drill.	
	Silent Readg.		Knitting.	Knitting.	,,	Handwork.	Org. Games.	
	,,		Writing.	Writing.	,,	Org. Games.	Composition.	
	,,		Drawing and	Handwork.	,,	Drill.	Recitation.	

Science. The effect of this is seen in the time-table.

DIGEST OF PRECEDING TIME-TABLE

Standards.	VII.	VI.	V.	IV.	III.	II.	I.A.	I.B.
	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.	VIII.
(*a*) English Composition (W.)	80	60	90	115	90	145	75	85
(*b*) English Composition (Oral)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
(*c*) Spelling	—	—	—	—	—	20	20	—
(*d*) Grammar	30	30	—	—	—	—	—	—
(*e*) Reading (see Literature)	55	50	85	85	105	260	345	345
(*f*) Recitation (see Literature)	—	—	—	—	40	30	25	45
(*g*) Word-building (included in Spelling)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
(*h*) Handwriting ..	—	—	—	—	55	50	50	50
(*i*) Literature	235	205	250	280	190	—	—	—
Arithmetic	200	200	250	250	250	270	270	270
Drawing (Handwork) ..	60	60	60	60	60	90	90	80
Observation Lessons and Nature Study	60	60	60	55	60	30	30	30
Hygiene	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Geography	80	80	80	60	60	30	30	30
History	60	60	90	60	60	30	30	30
Singing	55	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
Physical Exercises ..	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Swimming and Organised Games	80	90	65	65	80	80	90	90
Needlework	120	135	135	135	135	130	130	110
Homework, Test ..	80	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Domestic Subjects ..	180	150	—	—	—	—	—	—
Literature IV.-VII. (including the reading of all books other than History and Geography, also Recitation)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Scripture	120	150	150	150	150	150	150	150
Recreation	90	90	100	100	100	100	100	100
Registration	65	70	75	75	75	75	75	75
Total ..	1,650	1,650	1,650	1,650	1,650	1,650	1,650	1,650

SUBJECTS TAUGHT OFF THE PREMISES.

	Remarks (if any).
Swimming ..	Taken by about 60 girls in Stds. IV., V., VI., and VII., on Thursday Afternoons in the Summer.
Domestic Subjects	All girls in Std. VII. attend Cookery, Laundry, or Housewifery, on Tuesday Morning, and Std. VI. on Thursday Afternoon.

VI.—WAR TIME-TABLE OF BOYS' DEPARTMENT OF A HIGHER GRADE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL.

Class.		9.	9.30	10.30	10.45	11.20	12 2	2.40 3	3.20	3.30	4	4.30	
1	Monday.	Old Testament.	Mathematics.	RECREATION.	Recitation, Reading.	Bookkeeping.	French.		RECREATION.	Literature.			Monday.
2		,, ,,	French. V.T.		Bookkeeping.	History.	Music.	Recitation.		Ph. Exs.	Dictation.		
3		,, ,,	Mathematics.		French. V.T.	Composition.	Literature.	Geometry.		Dictation.	Ph. Exs.		
4		,, ,,	,,		Geography.	French V.T.	Music.	Ph. Exs.		Drawing.			
1	Tuesday.	Hymns and Memory.	Mathematics.		History.	Shorthand.	Drawing.			French.	Ph. Exs.		Tuesday.
2		New Testament.	,,		Drawing.		Composition.	French. H.M.		Literature.			
3		,, ,,	,,		History.	French.	Reading.	Music.		Drawing.			
4		,, ,,	French. H.M.		,,	Composition.	Grammar.	Reading.		Ph. Exs.	Recitation.		
1	Wednesday.	New Testament.	French.		Grammar.	Geography.	Composition.			Science.			Wednesday.
2		Old Testament.	French or Science. V.T.		,,	Mathematics.	Geography.	Mathematics.		Ph. Exs.	Dictation.		
3		,, ,,	Geography.		Science.		Literature.	,.		French.			
4		Hymns and Memory.	Mathematics.		Geography.	French. V.T.	,,	Science.		Ph. Exs.	Geometry.		
1	Thursday.	Old Testament.	Mathematics.		History.	Shorthand.	French.	Ph. Exs.		Music.			Thursday.
2		,, ,,	,,		Grammar.	Composition.	Reading.	French. H.M.		Literature.			
3		Hymns and Memory.	,,		History.	French.	,,	Music.		Dictation.	Ph. Exs.		
4		Old Testament.	,,		,,	,,	Composition.	Reading.		,,	Recitation.		
1	Friday.	New Testament.	Mathematics.		French.	Bookkeeping.	Geography.	Dictation.		Literature.			Friday.
2		Hymns and Memory.	French or Science. H.M.		Bookkeeping.	History.	French. V.T.	Pract. Geog.		Recitation.	Reading.		
3		New Testament.	Geography.		Grammar.	Composition.	Literature.	French. V.T.		,,	Ph. Exs.		
4		,, ,,	Mathematics.		,,	,,	,,	Geography.		French. V.T.			

V.T.= Visiting Teacher. H.M.= Head-master.

ANALYSIS OF PRECEDING TIME-TABLE.

	Time in Minutes.			
	Class 1.	*Class* 2.	*Class* 3.	*Class* 4.
Scripture	150	150	150	150
Mathematics	240	200	220	240
French	245	240	240	240
Science	60	60	50	40
Drawing	80	75	100	90
Bookkeeping	80	70	—	—
Literature	120	120	120	80
Geography	115	80	120	110
History	70	80	70	70
Shorthand	80	—	—	—
Composition	80	80	80	120
Grammar	35	70	35	75
Recitation } Reading }	35	50	30	60
		70	80	80
Dictation	40	60	60	30
Music	60	60	80	60
Physical Exercises ..	70	60	90	80
Recreation	125	125	125	125
Total ..	1,650	1,650	1,650	1,650

Notes.—1. Only the upper section (Classes 1, 2, 3, and 4) of this school is of higher grade.

2. The absence in the Army of the Science teacher accounts for the short period allotted to this subject. The laboratory holds only twenty pupils.

3. Specialisation has also been much reduced owing to war conditions.

4. The school is rather cramped, and this fact has had its effect upon the time-table.

VII.—TIME-TABLE OF AN OPEN-AIR SCHOOL.

Day.	9	9.40	9.55	10.5	10.40	10.55	11.25	11.30	12	12.40	1.40	3.15	3.30	4.15	5 to 6
Mon.	Breakfast. March to Open-Air School.	Prayers. Registration. Scripture or Hymns.	Class Talks { Current events; weather; hygiene; personal cleanliness; Nature tales.	Arith.	Recreation.	Geog.	Breathing Exercises.	Reading.	Pack up apparatus; Arrange chairs for "Rest." Walk to neighbouring Elementary School; Wash.	Dinner. March to Open-Air School.	Rest.	Recreation.	Girls.—Needlework. Boys.—Handwork.		5.0. Pack up apparatus, clogs, etc. 5.15. Prayers. Walk to neighbouring Elementary School. 5.30. Tea. 6.0 Dismissal.
Tues.				Arith.		Nature Study.		Drawing.					1. Gardening. 2. Reading. 3. } 4. } Singing.	1. Reading. 2. Gardening. 3. } 4. } Reading.	
Wed.				Arith.		History.		Poetry.					Spelling.	Drawing.	
Thurs.				Arith.		Geog.		Composition.					Girls.—Needlework. Boys.—Handwork.		
Fri.				Arith.		Nature Study.		Spelling.					1. } 2. } Singing. 3. } 4. } Gardening.	Reading.	
Sat.				History.	Hand	work.							Attendance is optional. (Play only.)		

The time-tables of Central Schools will naturally show rather more diversity than those of the ordinary Elementary Schools, since the character of the curriculum would be more influenced and modified by the needs of the district, by the local trades and occupations, and the avocations and social class of the parents. At the same time, the instruction is rightly of a general kind, and on such liberal lines as will afford opportunity for the growth of general culture and will make appeal to any and every power the pupil may possess.

The head-teacher of a Central School has in his own hands the framing of the curriculum, and may handle the problem with such freedom as either to differentiate in a pronounced fashion between the commercial and industrial aspects or to almost obliterate the distinction between them. He may allot eight hours weekly to French and four to English, or *vice versa;* he may include or omit shorthand; in fact, his freedom is very considerable. At present this freedom is not entirely an evil, as the Central School is still in the experimental stage, and it is still uncertain what form its curriculum will finally take. Moreover, the head-teachers are presumably the most gifted and experienced from the ranks of elementary teachers, and may be trusted to make good use of their freedom.

The digest and time-table given on pp. 167, 168, and 169 are those of a Commercial Central School for boys drawn from a residential neighbourhood of clerks, business and trades people of various kinds—in other words, from a "respectable" suburban quarter.

There are many points of interest in the time-table on pp. 170 and 171, a short discussion of which may throw some light on the difficulties encountered in framing curricula and time-tables.

DIGEST OF FOLLOWING TIME-TABLE.

Lessons.	*4th Year.*	*3rd Year.*		*2nd Year.*		*1st Year.*	
	Cl. I.	A. *Cl. II.*	B. *Cl. III.*	A. *Cl. IV.*	B. *Cl. V.*	A. *Cl. VI.*	B. *Cl. VII.*
Scripture	150	150	150	150	150	150	150
English	220	250	220	240	210	200	190
Mathematics (Arithmetic), Algebra, and Practical Mathematics ..	400	320	370	400	430	380	340
History	80	70	80	70	60	80	70
Geography ..	80	70	70	80	70	70	80
Science	—	—	—	—	—	140	140
Handicraft ..	—	150	150	150	150	—	—
Drawing	80	80	80	80	100	120	120
Singing	—	—	—	60	60	70	70
French	240	240	210	240	220	290	310
Shorthand and Bookkeeping ..	160	120	120	—	—	—	—
Business Routine	40	—	—	—	—	—	—
Correspondence ..	40	40	40	30	—	—	—
Physical Exercises	50	70	70	60	80	50	40

Notes—1. *Physical Education.*—In winter lessons occur three times a week. In summer the swimming lesson takes the place of one.

2. Singing is taught only in the 1st and 2nd years. The voice then begins to break.

3. Owing to the war, and depletion of Staff, Science is taken only during the 1st year (2 hours a week in Laboratory); Manual Training during the 2nd year and 3rd year; Shorthand, Bookkeeping, and Typewriting during the 4th year. In this way all pupils receive some training in all these branches.

4. The Scripture lesson (9.0 to 9.30) is not shown.

	9.30	10.10	10.50	11.0	11.30	12.0
4th yr.	1. Arithmetic.	Geography.		Geometry and	Trigonometry.	
3rd yr. A	2.	Man	ual	Train	ing.	
3rd yr. B	3. Arithmetic.	French.		Physical Exs.	Geography.	
2nd yr. A	4. Metric Arith. and Mensuration.	Algebra.		Fre	nch.	
2nd yr. B	5. French.	Metric Arith.		History.	Composition.	
1st yr. A	6. Science or Gramm	ar and French.		Science or Gram	mar and French.	
1st yr. B	7. Metric Arith.	History.		Algebra.	Music.	
	1. Mensuration.	Shorthand.		Fre	nch.	
	2. Bookkeeping.	Physical Exs.		Geography.	French.	
	3. Draw	ing.		French.	Metric Arith.	
	4. French.	Geography.		Physical Exs.	Geometry.	
	5. Arithmetic.	French.		Poetry.	Spelling.	
	6. Algebra.	Metric Arith.		Draw	ing.	
	7. Science or Gramm	ar and French.		Science or Gram	mar and French.	
	1. History.	French.		Bookkeeping.		
	2. Shorthand.	Metric Arith.		Composition.	Derivation.	
	3. Man	ual		Train	ing.	
	4. Arithmetic.	French.		Music.	Poetry.	
	5. Geography.	Mental Arith.		Fre	nch.	
	6. French.	Mental Arith. or Physical Exs.		Geom	etry.	
	7. Science or Corre French.	spondence and		Science or Corre French.	spondence and	
	1. Arithmetic.	Composition.		Fre	nch.	
	2. Draw	ing.		Physical Exs.	Arithmetic.	
	3. French.	Mental Arith.		Mensuration.		
	4 Algebra.	Grammar.		Mensuration		
	5. Man	ual		Train	ing.	
	6. Science or Corre French.	spondence and		Science or Corres Grammar.	pondence and	
	7. Arithmetic.	Algebra.		Draw	ing.	
	1. Arithmetic.	Business Tr'ning.		Physical Exs.	Shorthand.	
	2. French.	Geography.		French.	Arithmetic.	
	3. Geography.	History.		Spelling.	French.	
	4. Arithmetic.	Geography.		Music.	Corresp.	
	5. Geometry.	Physical Exs.		Music.	Algebra.	
	6. Arithmetic.	Music.		Mensur	ation.	
	7. Arithmetic.	Music.		History.	Poetry.	

SCHOOL FOR BOYS (COMMERCIAL BIAS).

1.30	2.10	2.50 3.0	3.30 4.0
1. French.	History.	Derivation.	Poetry.
2. Correspondence.	French.	Algebra.	Poetry.
3. History.	Geometry.	Algebra.	Poetry.
4. Arithmetic.	Composition.	History.	French.
5. Arithmetic.	Algebra.	Geography.	Prose.
6. History.	Composition.	Music.	Poetry.
7. Mensuration.	Mensuration.	French.	Derivation and Composition.
1. Drawing.	Drawing.	Arithmetic.	Prose.
2. History.	Shorthand.	French.	Prose.
3. Shorthand.	Composition.	Algebra.	Derivation.
4. Man	ual	Train	ing.
5. Mensuration.	Physical Exercises.	Correspondence.	Grammar.
6. French.	Arithmetic.	Physical Exercises.	Derivation and Composition.
7. Geography.	French.	Draw	ing.
1. Algebra.	Geography.	Physical Exercises.	Shorthand.
2. Geometry to 2.20.	Algebra.	History.	French.
3. French.	Shorthand.	Arithmetic.	Prose.
4. History.	Derivation and Composition.	Mensuration.	Prose.
5. Algebra.	French.	History.	Derivation and Composition.
6. Arithmetic.	Poetry.	French.	Geography.
7. Geometry.	Physical Exercises.	French.	Arithmetic.
1. Algebra.	Correspondence.	Metric Arithmetic.	Poetry.
2. French.	Composition.	Algebra.	Poetry.
3. Bookkeeping.	Physical Exercises.	Algebra.	Poetry.
4. Draw	ing.	Physical Exercises.	French.
5. Arithmetic.	French.	Music.	Prose.
6. History.	Geography.	Draw	ing.
7. Geography.	Arithmetic.	French.	Poetry.
1. French.	Algebra.	Spelling.	Debate.
2. Mensuration to 2.50.	Algebra.	Spelling.	Debate.
3. Correspondence.	Arithmetic.	French.	Debate.
4. Algebra.	French.	Spelling.	Prose.
5. Arithmetic.	Drawing.	Draw	ing.
6. Algebra.	French.	Handwriting.	Prose.
7. Composition.	French.	Handwriting.	Prose.

MORNING.

	Class No.	Std.	9.0-9.30	9.45	9.30-10.30	10.30-11.0	11.10-12.0
Monday.	1	4c.	Assembly, Registration, and Prayers. Scripture.	Final Marking and Closing Registers.	Shorthand.	English.	French.
	2	4i.			Art.	—	—
	3	3c.			French.	Shorthand.	Maths.
	4	3i.			Geography.	History.	French.
	5	2 (a).			Science.	Singing.	Maths.
	6	2 (b).			Gardening (Boys). Needlework (Girls).	Singing.	Science.
	7	1 (a).			French.	Drill.	Maths.
	8	1 (b).			French.	Drill.	Maths.
	9	1 (c).			Man. Trng. (Boys). Dom. Econ. (Girls)	—	—
Tuesday.	1	4c.			Art.	Singing.	French.
	2	4i.			French.	Singing.	English.
	3	3c.			Mathematics.	Shorthand.	English.
	4	3i.			Mathematics.	Singing.	Science.
	5	2 (a).			Gardening (Boys). Needlework (Girls).	Drill.	Maths.
	6	2 (b).			English.	Drill.	Maths.
	7	1 (a).			Man. Trng. (Boys). Dom. Econ. (Girls).	—	—
	8	1 (b).			French.	History.	Maths.
	9	1 (c).			Science.	Geography.	Maths.
Wednesday.	1	4c.			Shorthand.	English.	French.
	2	4i.			Mathematics.	English.	Science.
	3	3c.			French.	Singing.	Maths.
	4	3i.			Gardening (Boys). Needlework (Girls).	Singing.	French.
	5	2 (a).			Man. Trng. (Boys). Dom. Econ. (Girls).	—	—
	6	2 (b).			French.	English.	Maths.
	7	1 (a).			Science.	Geography.	Maths.
	8	1 (b).			Art.	—	Maths.
	9	1 (c).			French.	Drill.	Maths.
Thursday.	1	4c.			Bookkeeping.	Drill.	French.
	2	4i.			French.	Drill.	Maths.
	3	3c.			English.	Shorthand.	Geog.
	4	3 i.			History.	Geography.	Science.
	5	2 (a).			Art.	—	Maths.
	6	2 (b)			Science.	English.	Maths.
	7	1 (a)			French.	History.	Maths.
	8	1 (b).			French.	Geography.	Maths.
	9	1 (c).			Gardening (Boys). Needlework (Girls).	History.	Maths.
Friday.	1	4c.			Science.	—	French.
	2	4i.			Man. Trng. (Boys). Needlework (Girls).	History.	Science.
	3	3c.			French.	Drill.	Maths.
	4	3i.			Mathematics.	Drill.	French.
	5	2 (a).			French.	English.	Maths.
	6	2 (b).			Art.	—	Maths.
	7	1 (a).			Mathematics.	Singing.	Maths.
	8	1 (d).			English.	Singing.	Maths.
	9	1 (c).			French.	Singing.	Maths.

AFTERNOON.

	2.0-3.0	3.0-3.30	3.40-4.30
Assembly and Registration.	English.	Drill.	Mathematics.
	Gardening (B.). Ndlwk. (G.).	Drill.	Geography.
	Art.	Singing.	English.
	English.	Singing.	Science.
	French.	History.	Mathematics.
	French.	History.	English.
	Science.	History.	English.
	Man. Tg. (B.). Dom. Ec. (G.).	—	—
	French.	Geography.	English.
	Mathematics.	Singing.	Geography.
	Geography.	Singing.	Mathematics.
	French.	Geography.	Science.
	Mathematics.	French.	English.
	French.	English.	Geography.
	Man. Tg. (B.). Dom. Ec. (G.).	—	—
	French.	Drill.	English.
	Science.	Drill.	English.
	Art.	—	English.
	Art.	History.	Geography.
	Mathematics.	History.	English.
	Bookkeeping.	History.	Arithmetic.
	Manual Training (Boys). / Domestic Economy (Girls).	—	—
	French.	Drill.	Geography.
	French.	Drill.	Mathematics.
	Gardening (B.). Ndlwk. (G.).	Geography.	English.
	French.	Geography.	English.
	Science.	Drill.	English.
	Mathematics.	History.	Geography.
	Man. Tg. (B.). Dom. Ec. (G.).	—	—
	Geography.	History.	Science.
	Art.	—	—
	English.	History.	English.
	English.	History.	Geography.
	French.	Singing.	English.
	Science.	Singing.	English.
	French.	Singing.	English.
	Mathematics.	English.	English.
	French.	History.	English.
	Geography, 30. English, 30.	Drill.	Art.
	English.	Drill.	Mathematics.
	Science.	Singing.	Geography.
	Geography.	Singing.	Sci. (B.). Nk. (G.).
	Art.	—	Geography.
	Gardening (B.). Ndlwk. (G.).	History.	Geography.
	Mathematics.	History.	Geography.

DIGEST OF PRECEDING TIME-TABLE.

	Common to Both Sides.	*Commercial.*			*Industrial.*		
	1	2	3	4	2	3	4
Scripture	150	150	150	150	150	150	150
English : Composition (written) ,, (oral) Grammar, etc. ..	200	290	190	200	240	170	180
Arithmetic	260	220	210	230	220	230	202
History	60	60	60	60	60	90	90
Geography	110	150	170	150	110	90	110
Science	120	120	100	90	G. 110 B. 160	150	G. 140 B. 200
Handicraft	140	140	—	—	180	140	G. 140 B. 200
Drawing	90	120	160	120	120	140	140
Singing	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
French	240	240	240	250	180	180	G. 120 B. 60
Shorthand and Bookkeeping	—	—	150	180	—	—	—
Physical Exercises	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
Correspondence, Gardening, or Needlework	60	60	—	—	60	90	—

1. It is to be noted that the Fourth Year of the Commercial Course has no manual training, no gardening, and the girls no needlework.

2. The Science Course includes physics, chemistry, electricity, and magnetism (only a small amount of the latter), and lectures on general scientific topics such as evolution, aviation, the moon, the solar system.

3. English receives comparatively short shrift because so many other matters have to be crowded in.[1] English literature in particular has had small attention paid to it. It is proposed to remedy this by giving less time to less important subjects.

[1] The head-master who was kind enough to supply me with this time-table is not responsible for it, but has inherited it from a predecessor; at the present time he is engaged in modifying it on lines indicated in the above notes.

4. History suffers, too, in the same way and from the same reason. More time is to be given to this subject; and a new syllabus has been drawn up by a specialist teacher. The completed arrangements met almost immediately a blow in the loss of the specialist teacher by promotion.

5. It is apparently impossible in a Central School where the sexes are mixed to make the difference between industrial and commercial sides so marked as in schools where boys and girls are in separate departments. Moreover, it is by no means certain that the distinction should be rigidly kept. At one time this school was wholly industrial, yet many past pupils are now in commerce.

6. Classes have to be partially combined for certain subjects; for instance, in drill the boys of parallel sections have to come together and the girls at another time, the one class taking (on the new time-table) history while the other takes drill.

7. Handicraft presents another difficulty, having to include the work of girls as well as of boys. The boys can only get the time for handicraft which the girls get for cookery and housewifery. A few of the best boys get extra time for this subject; this does not appear on the time-table, and these boys have to miss other work. The head-master of this school would like to see a centre attached to the school for the girls as well as for the boys, so as to ensure adequate correlation between the various branches, and supervision, especially of advanced domestic courses.

8. French appears in the syllabus for the "industrials." This is unusual, and is probably the result of the accidental presence on the staff of several specialists in the language. Owing to the pressure of other subjects, the time was limited in the third and fourth year to three hours weekly. The present head-master is modifying this arrangement in what seems a very wise manner. This year only the best

"industrials" of the two last years will take the subject; that will probably mean about three-quarters of the commercial and about one-quarter of the industrial pupils. By working the two sides together and giving extra "handicraft" to the "non-French" pupils, advantage will accrue to both subjects. It is probable that under a still later reconstruction of the time-table the whole of the "industrials" will drop French and devote the time saved to manual work.

X.—ANALYSIS OF THE TIME-TABLE OF A COMBINED COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL CENTRAL SCHOOL FOR BOYS.*

Subjects.	*Commercial.*				*Industrial.*			
	4th.	3rd.	2nd.	1st.	4th.	3rd.	2nd.	1st.
Scripture ..	150	150	150	150	150	150	150	150
English ..	340	330	275	390	300	430	380	420
Mathematics ..	170	180	390	280	340	310	310	310
History ..	140	130	100	110	140	110	110	90
Geography ..	140	150	120	110	140	110	130	90
Science ..	70	70	70	70	210	140	140	140
Handicraft ..	—	—	—	—	140	140	140	140
Drawing ..	70	70	70	70	70	70	70	70
Singing ..	—	—	60	70	—	—	60	70
French	240	240	255	290	—	—	—	—
Shorthand ..	90	90	—	—	—	—	—	—
Business Routine	80	80	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total ..	1,490	1,490	1,490	1,540	1,490	1,460	1,490	1,480

The time-table of the small rural school presents difficulties of a kind quite different from those of the large urban school. In the first place, the classification of the scholars will have to be rather of the rough-and-ready type; the pupils of all classes will show wide differences of know-

* Students are invited to employ their critical powers upon the above, comparing and contrasting, in accordance with the principles made use of in this book, the periods allotted to the different subjects.

ledge and capacity. In the second place, the smallness of the classes will not allow of a separate teacher for each; one teacher will have to instruct two or even more groups or "standards" of scholars. In addition, the present administration and organisation of education in the country generally has not been efficient enough to always provide thoroughly efficient teachers or suitably built and furnished buildings.

The teachers themselves use a nomenclature to describe their internal organisation which is confusing. The term "class" has with them a variety of meanings, sometimes signifying the distinction between the upper, middle, and lower part of the school, sometimes indicating a standard, and sometimes the group of children engaged in doing similar work or receiving instruction at the same time from one teacher. It will conduce to clearness of thought if one terminology is adhered to. Small schools consisting of from 50 to 80 or 100 pupils can be most easily divided into Senior, Junior, and Infant Departments, the Senior consisting of the four top standards (IV., V., VI., and VII.), the Junior of Standards I., II., and III., and the Infant Department of those below the first standard. Sometimes the Senior Department may include Standard III., and sometimes, again, the Infant School may include Standard I. In such schools the staff often consists of three persons—the head master or mistress, an assistant teacher, and a supplementary teacher, the latter usually a young person who has received little or no training in the art of teaching. Occasionally two "supplementaries" assist a head-teacher. The assistant may be untrained and even uncertificated, and it is in no way to deprecate such teachers, who often do good work under this handicap, to assert that the position is unfortunate and disastrous for education. The head-teacher usually teaches the Senior, the supplementary the Middle, and the assistant teacher the Infant Department, this arrange-

ment allowing more adequate supervision of the weakest member of the staff by the head-teacher. The Senior Department is classified differently for various branches of instruction. For example, in arithmetic there may be four distinct classes, all working at different stages; thus the class here would correspond with what we understand as the standard. For reading and composition and some other subjects the children of the four standards might be classified to form two classes, the teacher giving half his time to one and half to another, the one reading silently while the other has practice in reading aloud; or one writing composition while the other is receiving instruction in the art of writing English.

In such circumstances it is obvious that each pupil must receive less direct teaching than the pupil of a standard which has a teacher with no other class to attend to, as in the larger schools. The disadvantages of this are numerous, but in the hands of a capable teacher the pupils often develop habits of self-reliance and independent study which are most valuable in their future life.

Thus the head-teacher of the small rural school has a task in organising the work and framing the time-table unknown to his colleague at the head of a large school, fully staffed by trained men and women. The ability, untiring energy, and patience needed by the rural head-teacher can scarcely be realised, and the degree of success attained by village schools bears witness to the efficiency of the men and women who conduct them. None the less, the State should see to it that the conditions of work undergo a speedy amelioration.

The time-table on pp. 178 and 179 is that of a rural school consisting of 13 boys, 24 girls, and 21 infants. The Senior School, under the direct instruction of the head-master, consists of Standards III., IV., V., and VI., and for certain subjects is arranged in two classes, composed as to Class 1 of Standards IV. (the more advanced

pupils), V., and VI., and as to Class 2 of Standard III. and the backward pupils of Standard IV. The Middle School includes Standards I. and II., and is taught by a supplementary teacher. All the infants are supervised by an uncertificated assistant mistress.

To work such a time-table as this it is clearly necessary to group two, and sometimes three, standards into one class for oral subjects, such as history, geography, Nature-study, and composition. In order that all the pupils of such a class may deal with fresh subject-matter each year—that is, that in every case the course should be progressive—the year's work is made part of a two or three years' syllabus. For instance, the geography scheme for Standards IV., V., and VI. might be as follows:

First Year.—Europe and the Mediterranean region.
Second Year.—Asia, Africa, and America, excluding British possessions and the Mediterranean regions of Asia and Africa.
Third Year.—The British Empire.

The history and Nature-study syllabuses would be similarly arranged.

Where the Senior School is divided into two classes for reading, various devices are employed for giving the pupils full occupation and proper instruction. It must be remembered that such classes are bound to be small, and that when the teacher gives half a lesson period to one and half to another, he may be able to do as much with them in the shorter time as the teacher of a class of forty or fifty pupils who has the whole lesson period at his disposal. The most common and natural method of dealing with the conditions is to set one class definite parts of the reader for silent reading, while *viva voce* reading is taken with the other, and then reversing procedure.

It will be seen from the time-table that reading is also

TIME-TABLE.

MORNING SESSION, 9 TO 12.

	Standards.	9.0–9.35	9.35–9.50	9.50–10.10	10.10–10.45	10.45–11.0	11.0–11.30	11.30–12.0	12.0–12.5
Monday.	IV. V. VI. III. II. I.	Assembly. Registration. Prayers and Religious Instruction.	Spelling. ,, ,, ,,	Physical Exercises.	Arithmetic. ,, ,, ,,	Recreation.	Reading. Composition. Reading. Composition.	Composition. Reading. Composition. Reading.	Grace and Dismissal.
Tuesday.	IV. V. VI. III. II. I.		Spelling. ,, ,, ,,	Singing. ,, ,, ,,	Arithmetic. ,, ,, ,,		Silent Reading. History. History. Stories.	Dictation. Composition. Silent Reading. Reading.	
Wednesday.	IV. V. VI. III. II. I.		Arithmetic (Mental). Spelling. ,,	Physical Exercises.	Arithmetic. ,, ,, ,,		Reading. Geography. Composition. Reading.	Geography. Reading. Reading. Composition.	
Thursday.	IV. V. VI. III. II. I.		Spelling. ,, ,, ,,	Singing. ,, ,, ,,	Arithmetic. ,, ,, ,,		Composition. Composition. Reading. Reading.	History. Silent Reading. Geography. Geography.	
Friday.	IV. V. VI. III. II. I.		Spelling. ,, ,, ,,	Physical Exercises.	Arithmetic. ,, ,, ,,		Reading. Geography. Composition. Reading.	Geography. Reading. Reading. Composition.	

AFTERNOON SESSION, 2 TO 4.15.

	Standards.	2.0–2.5	2.5–2.35	2.35–3.5	3.5–3.15	3.15–3.30	3.30–3.45	3.45–4.15	4.15–4.20.
Monday.	IV. V. VI. III. II. I.	Assembly, Grace, and Registration.	Drawing (Boys). Needlework (Girls).		Recreation.	Singing.	Mental Calculations.	History. History. Composition. Composition.	Prayers and Dismissal.
Tuesday.	IV. V. VI. III. II. I.		Recitation. Reading. Recitation.	Nature Study. Nature Study.		Drawing (Girls.) Map Drawing (Boys). Drawing (Girls.) Practical Arithmetic (Boys.)			
Wednesday.	IV. V. VI. III. II. I.		Drawing (Boys). Needlework (Girls).			Reading. Composition. Geography.	Composition. Reading. Composition.		
Thursday.	IV. V. VI. III. II. I.		English. Dictation. Recitation. Recitation.	Nature Study. Nature Study.		Reading. Recitation. Reading. Dictation.	Letter Writing. Letter Writing. Dictation. Reading.		
Friday.	IV. V. VI. III. II. I.		Manual Occupation (Boys). Needlework (Girls).			Composition. Composition.	3.45-4.0 Singing.	4.0-4.15. Mental Calculations.	

taken in combination with composition. Thus Standard III. is writing, while two other classes, one composed of Standards IV. and V. and the other of Standard VI., are having a reading lesson. The composition exercise is carried out by the pupils with little or no help. Meanwhile, for the first twenty minutes, Standards IV. and V. are reading aloud individually and Standard VI. is reading silently, using dictionaries and making notes of any difficult words. In the last ten minutes IV. and V. read silently and use their dictionaries, while VI. are tested as to their knowledge of the subject-matter and read aloud. In the next lesson Standards IV., V., and VI. write composition, while Standard III., which has not yet overcome the technical difficulties of reading, have a full half-hour of instruction in this subject. Definite chapters or parts of chapters are thus read and prepared silently. If the work is finished before time, the pupil can read the library book kept under his desk.

The lesson directed to class correction of composition is combined with dictation, and here, again, the work of correction is necessarily undertaken by the pupils more independently than is done in larger schools. By means of a number of symbols and letters, the type of mistake is indicated in the margin of the book, and each pupil corrects his own errors while the other class is doing the dictation exercise.

In this way the various combinations, such as reading and geography, reading and recitation, are carried through in spite of the apparent difficulties.

The arithmetic lesson merits a closer examination. At first sight it would seem almost impossible for one teacher to carry on four different arithmetic lessons at the same time, and, indeed, only by the most skilful organisation can it be done. The general plan governing all the subjects is first to draw up a yearly scheme of work, then to

divide it into terminal sections, and finally subdivide each term's syllabus into weekly schemes, generally arranged at each week-end in readiness for the work of the following week. By this means each teacher knows exactly what piece of work belongs to the day and to the particular lesson, and no time or mental energy is wasted at the moment of beginning a lesson.

The arithmetic work, in accordance with this plan, is laid out in such a way as to make it possible to supervise four classes at the same time. A week's work is here appended, taken from a well-organised rural school of fifty-nine pupils. It will be seen that actual instruction alternates for the different classes:

Outlines of Arithmetic for Week

Monday.

Standard III.—Practical Work ($\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{8}$ by paper folding). Additional and Subtraction of $\frac{1}{4}$d., $\frac{1}{2}$d., $\frac{3}{4}$d.

Standard IV.—L.C.M. Exercises 34 A and B. Find L.C.M. of 9, 15, 25.

Standard V.—Fractional Values. Exercise 37B. Express £2 3s. $7\frac{1}{2}$d. as decimal of £5.

Standard VI.—Accuracy Test. Exercise 44, i. Class Lesson on Proportional Division.

Mental based on work set.

Tuesday.

Standard III.—Problems ($\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{8}$)—*e.g.*, $\frac{1}{8}$ of £2 10s.; $\frac{1}{4}$ of £3 4s.; $\frac{1}{2}$ of £1 6s. 8d.

Standard IV.—Class Lesson. Blackboard work by scholars (H.C.F. and L.C.M.).

Standard V.—Fractional Values. Exercise 37C. Express $\frac{3}{7}$ of £1 as fraction of $1\frac{1}{3}$ of £$3\frac{1}{4}$.

Standard VI.—Accuracy Test. Exercise 44, 2.

Wednesday.

Standard III.—Problems ($\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{8}$). Example: How many hours in $\frac{1}{8}$ day? How many in $\frac{3}{8}$ day, $\frac{5}{8}$ day, $\frac{1}{4}$ day?

Standard IV.—Examples in L.C.M. Exercise 34C. Exercise 34 (*a*), 1.

Standard V.—Class Lesson. Vulgar and Decimal Fractions.

Standard VI.—Accuracy Test. Exercise 44, 3.

Mental for all classes based on work set.

Thursday.

Standard III.—Problems. Exercise 30C. Class Lesson ($\frac{1}{4}$d., $\frac{1}{2}$d., $\frac{3}{4}$d.). Multiplication and Division.

Standard IV.—Problems in H.C.F. and L.C.M. worked on blackboard by scholars.

Standard V.—Problems (Fractions). Exercise 37D.

Standard VI.—Problems in Proportional Divisional Division. Exercise 45A.

Friday.

Standard III.—Problems. Four rules in £ s. d. Exercise 31A.

Standard IV.—Problems in H.C.F. and L.C.M. Exercise 35 A and B.

Standard V.—Class Lesson. Blackboard work by Scholars (Vulgar and Decimal Fractions).

Standard VI.—Accuracy Test. Exercise 44, 4. Class Lesson in Proportional Division.

Mental work based on work set for each class.

This scheme was drawn up after school on Friday, November 23, and carried out, exactly as drawn up, during the week ending November 30, 1917.

CHAPTER X

OTHER ELEMENTS OF SCHOOL ORGANISATION

In the large Urban Elementary Schools of England the head-teacher is usually at the head of a department; in Germany and America he generally governs the whole school. The wider his sphere of authority, the smaller his personal influence tends to become; the more he becomes an official, the more he ceases to be a teacher. In French Secondary Schools the head-master, or *proviseur*, is little more than business manager. In England tradition and educational aims have given rise to a conception of the head of the school which is almost in complete opposition to Continental and American ideas. We regard the personal influence of the head-master as vital to the welfare of the school; some schools even limit the number of pupils for this reason. In the case of large Secondary Schools, efforts have been made to retain the element of personal influence by establishing School Houses, with miniature head-masters at the head of each. The older the pupil, the greater the value we attach to the influence upon him of the person wielding the greatest influence in the school. Even the City Elementary School we do not consider too large, or its pupils too young, to make this contact between the pupils and the head-master impossible or unnecessary. The frequent visits of the head-master to class-rooms are a special feature of English Elementary Schools. Some of the German Primary Schools are so large that it is practically impossible for the principal to know what goes on in the class-rooms, and altogether beyond his power to know

any considerable number of pupils at all intimately or to exert a directly personal influence.

A peculiar difference in the relation between head and assistant masters exists between the Elementary and the Secondary Schools of our own country. The head-teacher of an Elementary School usually supervises his teachers much more, and yet has less power over them, than the head of a Secondary School. The former can secure a certain degree of efficiency from incapable or lazy teachers by constant personal supervision; the latter can achieve the same end by the menace of dismissal. The former, especially if a person with ideas, interferes much more in the methods of teaching used by his staff than the latter, who seldom worries *how* the subject-matter is being taught. Thus, in the Elementary School we frequently find uniform methods adopted from the bottom to the top of the school; in the Secondary School uniformity is frequently absent. This is contrary to what we might expect, for the teachers of the Elementary School are often thoroughly trained men and women, while numbers of Secondary School teachers work by the light of Nature. The Elementary head-teacher lives much more among his class-teachers—to such a degree, indeed, that his temperament and moods are felt by them as constant elements of the environment, elements which largely contribute to make their lot pleasant or unpleasant.

The amount of actual supervision of the teaching varies considerably. In some Elementary Schools the head-teacher rarely visits the class-room; in others he is in and out very frequently, rarely leaving the teacher to his own devices for long. These two extremes are both bad, in that they do not secure the best work, and the best course is, as nearly always is the case, the middle one. Every body of co-operative workers needs supervision, if for no other reason than that co-ordination may be secured; but no

workman can do his best when subjected to constant interference.

There is little doubt that the government of the school by the head-teacher should be of a democratic and not of an autocratic type. Co-operation should be the keynote. The ten or twelve periods a week of teaching which every elementary head-teacher should reserve to himself may help to promote the idea of co-operation and diminish that of mere direction. Some devote these hours of teaching to one class, others to one subject. If the former plan is pursued, the head-teacher's influence is concentrated with good effect, especially if he teaches the highest class of the school. If the latter plan is followed, his influence is felt throughout the school, and his activity, when efficient, serves as an example to both teachers and scholars.

This example will be particularly useful to the young teacher who has just left the Training College, and who therefore has had, at most, about a year of teaching experience. Occasionally the head-teacher acts as if this young person has had the experience which twenty or more years ago fell to the lot of the pupil-teacher. The case is very different, however. The year of the student teachership is quite insufficient to form a teacher out of the boy or girl of seventeen, and the six weeks of practice possible in the Training College are ludicrously inadequate for carrying the process of development far. Moreover, many of those entering the schools from the Training Colleges have not been student teachers, and hence have had only twelve weeks' experience of teaching. Under these circumstances the head-teacher's duty is clear. He has to help, advise, and encourage, and, in fact, train these young teachers. They have ideals and some theoretical knowledge of the principles of teaching, but little first-hand acquaintance with the art. The treatment of these neophytes will make or mar their career, and incidentally contribute to or

diminish the efficiency of the school. The same training by the head-master is needed in the case of student teachers who are receiving their first training in the Elementary School.

Under present conditions the head-teacher has to frame the curriculum for the whole school. If he is well advised he will secure the collaboration of the whole of his staff in this work. He has also to see that each teacher plans a scheme of work for that part of the curriculum allotted to him, showing the parts of the syllabus and the number of periods to be devoted to them. He must also keep himself *au courant* with regard to the work actually completed, so that he may be in a position to test progress and to suggest necessary changes. The written record of completed work kept by every class teacher will give this knowledge.

Classification of the pupils will demand the head-teacher's close attention. When a new pupil is received into the school it is necessary to discover for what class his attainments and abilities most nearly fit him. To some extent it is the same kind of "fit" which the ready-made suit provides, but some knowledge and skill are necessary to achieve even this rough-and-ready adaptation. The suit finally takes something of the wearer's shape, but the child has to shape himself to the class, and the result is often a distortion. His development may be retarded and even arrested in many directions if the business of classifying has been bungled. It is of little use to ascertain what class or standard he was in in his last school, or what is his age. It will be necessary to test him in a few fundamental matters, especially in those where lack of knowledge would, if he is not correctly placed in the school, necessitate individual teaching. Arithmetic is usually chosen as the test, not because it is more important than any other fundamental, but because no progress would be possible to a child backward in the subject without individual teaching. In

the lowest classes of the school this is almost equally true with regard to the power to *read*. In most of the other branches of knowledge ignorance is no such bar to progress. Hence the task of classification is by no means difficult. No doubt cases arise which require special treatment, as, for example, when a very bright child shows that he is behind in arithmetic owing, perhaps, to prolonged absence from school, or to his last school having a very different syllabus. In such a case a very little intensive teaching may enable the pupil to find his proper level in the school.

It is permissible to place a pupil in one class for one subject and in another for others—in other words, to reclassify for special subjects. The Board of Education confers full freedom of reclassification, but accompanies the permission with words of advice. If the head-teacher makes extensive use of his freedom it will be necessary to frame a time-table in which the same subject is taken at the same time throughout the school. One evil result of this plan is that it becomes impossible to make use of the special talents of members of the staff. Thus he will compromise and seek as far as possible to adjust the two opposing tendencies.

Where a pupil shows special capacity or unusual backwardness he will be placed for that subject in a class suited to him, returning to his own class for all other subjects. It will be conceded, however, that in many instances opportunities for developing a special capacity and even for dealing with backwardness in one particular direction can often be found in the class to which such a pupil belongs. It is evidently undesirable to complicate school organisation by any work but quite necessary changes of this kind. The sectional work which is coming into prominence will do much to render reclassification superfluous and will be productive of nothing but good so long as its employment as a method of teaching is not pushed to the point of increasing the teacher's burden.

An excellent plan has been adopted in many schools to meet the case of those pupils who consistently show less than average mental power, whose ability to gain information from books is small, and who therefore require quite different treatment from the average child. The head-teacher, partly from his own observation and partly from reports by the class teachers, discovers these children and places them in remove classes. All those found in the lower part of the school are placed in one, and those in the upper part in another class; some large schools have been able to arrange for three such groups. These children are carefully watched, and where the more concrete teaching is effective, the pupil is removed and put in an ordinary class suited to his development. The primary side of the "Mannheim system," in which the school consists of three types of classes—the normal, the backward, and the mentally deficient—is an extension of this idea. Entering the school at the age of six, the pupils spend the first school year under the charge of one teacher, who classifies them into normal and backward. At the end of a year the former pass into the next higher class, proceeding ordinarily through the eight standards at the rate of one per year; after reaching the fourth standard, the best of them are drafted into the Secondary Schools. The latter spend another year in the same class, and if after this time they still give evidence of very slow development, they are placed in the department consisting of six graded classes of backward children. A further sifting discovers those who are really mentally deficient, and these are removed to a department consisting of four classes. Scholars who are cases of merely late development and who finally make good are regularly retransferred to the department for normals.

Quite as important as the classifying of the pupils is the classifying of the members of the staff. Teachers exhibit just as many divergencies of character, ability, and taste

as other people, so that there is at least as much need to see that they are suited to their particular spheres of work as there is in the world of business and industry. Some find their greatest opportunity in the lowest, others in the middle, and others in the top classes of the school. There is no question of rank or status involved. In the upper departments of the Elementary School it may be taken for granted that certain teachers are better adapted to deal with children of from seven to nine or ten, and others with those of from ten to fourteen years of age. As, however, no staff will exactly resemble any other, the sound judgment of the head-teacher will always be needed for allocating individuals to their proper posts.

The question is complicated by the desirability of making the best use of special gifts or special knowledge of members of the staff. One may be gifted in mathematics or history, another in art or handwork; one may be musical and possess the power of conducting large combined classes for choral work, another may be particularly interested in physical training. Not every subject requires a specialist, even in the top classes of the school, nor is it good for children to have very many teachers; it is, on the contrary, best for them to keep the same teacher for most subjects, and in a mental world, which is characterised by instability and flux, to have a permanent personality around which their ideas may circle and develop steadfast associations. Moreover, it is good for them that one person should know them well; training of character can make little or no progress when it is left in the hands of what are really "visiting teachers"—teachers unfamiliar with the children through spending so little time in their company. In the ordinary Elementary School it is therefore better that one, the class teacher, should take the bulk of the work with the same class, but that special gifts in singing or drawing and English literature should be utilized by allowing the

specialist to teach his subject in several classes. Speaking generally, this procedure should be adopted only in the case of art subjects—that is, in subjects where no amount of application on the part of the teacher can compensate for the lack of a certain kind of imagination or power of artistic expression, whether manual or oral. Where such deficiencies occur, and no organisation of the kind suggested is present, very great harm to many children may result. The tiny spark of appreciation and of artistic expression may be quenched, and the higher pleasures which make life worth living for ever missed.

Thus we see limits set to specialising by teachers in the Elementary School, and the head-teacher has to distribute his staff in the best possible way within these limits. On the whole, the plan which appears to harmonise best with the many facts involved is the following. The teacher best suited to the lower classes might begin with Standard I. and carry his class forward year by year until they reach Standard III. or IV.; then he might begin again with a new set of children in Standard I. A similar procedure might be adopted with the teacher most suited to the older children. It is almost invariably advisable to place the young teacher who enters the school from the Training College with the lowest class and allow him to progress up the school. In this way he is less severely taxed at the beginning of his career, and the head-teacher has the best opportunity of discovering his special gifts and deficiencies. Occasionally in the lower, and generally in the upper classes, two or perhaps three subjects might be placed in the hands of specialists. The special courses followed by Training College students in certain selected branches of study render this possible and even imperative.

Many schools are at the present time, and will be to a growing extent in the immediate future, faced by another problem closely connected with that just handled. The

steadily diminishing number of men teachers has necessitated the employment of women teachers in many boys' schools, and it is therefore becoming increasingly important to gain clear ideas of the bearing of such a fact upon education.

Under the economic and social conditions of the present day the nature and needs of the girl of from six to eleven or twelve years of age do not seem to be radically different from those of the boy. The age of puberty, which with girls frequently begins at twelve, and the economic conditions, which have hitherto demanded some degree of specialised preparation for after-school life, are said to indicate that this stage of life is the latest moment for providing them with teachers of their own sex. Against this conclusion it might be urged that there is nothing in the approach of adolescence which calls for this separation, but rather the reverse, and, further, that the separation, if at all necessary, should only be partial, and that the man's influence should supplement the woman's. With regard to the so-called specialised preparation for life, a large body of opinion has declared against the introduction of such studies, and for their postponement until the Continuation School is reached. Moreover, recent sudden changes in our national life are giving us altogether new conceptions of woman's nature, needs, and powers—conceptions which may involve the admission of the necessity for the man's influence on girls of all ages. Both Elementary and Secondary Schools are still far from this point of view. The latter, even when boys and girls are under one roof and under the government of one principal, still preserve practically distinct organisations.

Such an arrangement would not necessarily be reciprocal; that is, it would not therefore follow that women should teach boys of all ages, either partially or entirely.

There is little doubt that the English boy is more

exuberant and obstreperously curious than the girl, that his demand for real and personally interesting work is more keen, and that he is less content with monotony and routine than the girl. He has a greater zest for adventure and creative work, a spirit more intolerant of a superimposed order and routine; he needs a firm hand and a directing mind which is broad and catholic to respond to his own actively outreaching mind. The man teacher, owing to the general conditions of male life, has at present a broader and more intimate knowledge of life than his hitherto sheltered colleague of the other sex. It therefore follows that as a general rule the man should teach, at any rate, the older boys, and indeed, if the facts stated are true, it would be stimulating if the benefits enjoyed by the boys were, so far as practicable, shared by the girls.

The question of the sex of the class teacher is one of the most important and serious which we have to face, and is one to which as yet we have no absolute answer. Economic conditions in America have resulted in almost abolishing the male teacher, but as yet it is impossible to gauge the effects. Curiously enough, the woman teacher in Germany has made no headway in the Primary Schools, where there are only 18 women to 100 men. Here, again, we have no means of estimating the training effects of this arrangement, as at present it is impossible to disentangle the elements of the problem, and we are forced to rely on merely *a priori* considerations. The tendency towards elimination of the man teacher is very strong in this country. Facing this fact, and confining our attention to the narrow issue of allocation of the staff, we conclude that the woman teacher will in general find her largest opportunities and perform her best work with girls and with the younger boys.

The supervision of the promotion of pupils from one class to another is another duty of the head-teacher. Its proper

performance is a matter of interest to both pupil and teacher, and therefore, in different ways, both should have a voice in the decision. The natural progress and development of the pupil depend almost entirely upon the sound judgment of his educators, and it needs but little reflection to see that promotion, to be beneficial, must be carried out with due regard to the limited powers of the class teacher to deal adequately with a class consisting of pupils of diverse attainments and powers. In short, the child's future possibilities of service and the teacher's of an unharassed existence hang here in the absence.

In the old evil days of examination on Code requirements each scholar remained one year or longer in the same class. If he failed to reach the required examination standard he had to remain another year working at the same syllabus, so that it was not at all a rare thing to find a pupil remaining several years in the same standard, and who was likely, unless a miracle happened, to remain there until he was old enough to leave school.

There were two great evils attached to this system. The bright child who was able to master the work of the class in a much shorter time than the rest was condemned to mark time mentally, not entirely because of the necessity of remaining a year in the class, but because, owing to an iniquitous Government grant system, his teacher had no time to pay proper attention to scholars who were certain of passing the annual examination. Nowadays it would be possible to cater, at least to some degree, for such children by working the class in sections, or by the use of private study and independent work, both of which were formerly unknown in the larger schools. The possibilities of individual work are, however, limited, and experience has shown that the difficulties involved will not allow full justice to be done to the needs of such children. The old system took no heed of individuality; regimentation was

the order of the day; the child's personality was lost sight of in the class; special powers, special needs and tastes, received little or no attention. Any system of promotion on such lines is clearly to be condemned.

The other evil was the bad effect of the system upon the backward. The examination used to decide the question of promotion was confined almost completely to book knowledge, and took hardly any account of manual powers and first-hand knowledge of man and Nature, so that many a child who had powers and tastes other than those adopted as educational standards was adjudged backward and refused promotion. Or perhaps a pupil was weak in arithmetic and suffered a similar penalty. All these so-called backward, stupid children were condemned to be left behind in the forward march of their fellows, and to find themselves working among children younger, and often much younger, than themselves. The effects of this treatment must have been disastrous; discouragement must have produced a state of mind quite antagonistic to progress and to effort. No one can compute how many lives have been stunted or distorted by the system.

To-day there is need to guard against error of a contrary kind. There is a very strong tendency to promote too rapidly. Directly a bright child has been through the work of his standard, and even before he has been through it, he is frequently promoted to a higher one. The general test, if one may call it a test, is: Has he been through the new rules in the arithmetic syllabus of his class? Arithmetic has many sins to answer for, and the over-emphasis of its value as a test of mental efficiency is not the least. But far more dangerous than the mistake as to the value of arithmetic as a standard of measurement is the mistake as to what constitutes real knowledge. There are several stages before real knowledge and power are reached. There is first the merely superficial acceptance of an idea;

then comes about a gradual insight into its import; then ownership or practical experience of the idea, followed finally by the transformation of the idea into power or habit.[1] Herbert Spencer summarises the four stages epigrammatically as the transformation of fact into faculty. In modern hurry and bustle we tend to overlook the necessity of this process, and to imagine that the pupil is ready to attack new worlds before he has consolidated his previous and precarious conquests. Most teachers have grasped this conception; some from reflection upon the child's nature, and others from the experience they have had in trying to develop the knowledge and power of pupils who have failed to master the fundamental ideas without which progress is slow and painful. Unfortunately, the necessity of making the numbers in the classes more approximately equal in order to comply with Board of Education Regulations with regard to size of classes has induced various Local Education Authorities to exert pressure upon the head-teachers to promote rapidly. The result has been not only an intolerable strain upon the class teacher, but a calamitous undermining and destruction of the essentials of real development. Not only has the teacher to lose his pupil at the very moment when he obtains a glimpse of the reward of his efforts, but he is constantly, sometimes every three months, faced with a fresh batch of arrivals, to whom he has to give intensive teaching in the midst of his duties to the happy average pupil, and whom he has to pass on as swiftly as possible to still higher domains. Unhappy is the bright child subjected to too frequent promotion, and unhappy the teacher who is the victim of this mistaken system. In France, Germany, and America promotion is never carried on in this reckless fashion. A year is regarded as the normal period that a child should spend in one class.

[1] See L.C.C. Memorandum on Homework in Evening Institutes.

The difficulty of the position in England is accentuated by a really enlightened view which has been carried too far. We have noted the bad effects resulting from retaining the backward child in the same standard among children much younger than himself. This procedure is now rarely followed. It is now generally considered that after a year's work in one standard he should be promoted. Hence the teacher is confronted not only with a very heterogeneous class, but one which shows very wide divergencies, from the extremely backward to the very bright. His work is therefore of a most arduous and harassing kind. This additional difficulty could be removed by the formation of "remove classes," referred to in an earlier part of this chapter.

There is always danger of dogmatising in all such questions; every case should be considered on its own merits. The decisions as to promotion must be made by the head-teacher, and should be influenced by considerations of fairness to both pupil and teacher; no rigid rules can be laid down. None the less, principles are of little value unless they are capable of application to the majority of cases. It may therefore be suggested that the normal procedure should be that of annual promotions for the mass of school children, with occasional half-yearly promotions for those who show some special degree of intelligence and power.

A great difficulty would be encountered even by the bright child should he find that his new work does not dovetail with his recent work because the class into which he has been promoted has half completed its syllabus for the year. Unless some plan is evolved to avoid this, he will have to catch on with work which is six months ahead of him. The plan which meets with fairly general approval, and one which is not a makeshift or mere expedient, as it is based on a sound principle, that of revision, is to arrange the scheme of work in each class in such a way that the

greater part of the year's syllabus is worked through in the first six months, the smaller part, with a thorough revision and amplification of the work of the first part, being taken in the last six months. The course of a very bright pupil might thus follow some such direction as is shown below :

Standard I.		Standard II.		Standard III.		Standard IV.		Standard V.	
Apr. to Sept., 1917.	*Sept.*, 1917, *to Apr.*, 1918.	*Apr. to Sept.*, 1917.	*Sept.*, 1917, *to Apr.*, 1918.	*Apr. to Sept.*, 1918.	*Sept.*, 1918, *to Apr.*, 1919.	*Apr. to Sept.*, 1918.	*Sept.*, 1918, *to Apr.*, 1919.	*Apr. to Sept.*, 1919.	*Sept.*, 1919, *to Apr.*, 1920.
Two-thirds of syllabus.	One-third of syllabus and revision.	Two-thirds of syllabus.	One-third of syllabus and revision.	Two-thirds of syllabus.	One-third of syllabus and revision.	Two-thirds of syllabus	One-third of syllabus and revision.	Two-thirds of syllabus.	One-third of syllabus and revision.

Thus, if he begins in Standard I. at seven years of age, he is ten on completing twelve months in Standard V., and probably at this stage either passes for a short period into Standard VI. or proceeds at once to a Secondary School. By some arrangement of which the above is only one type the bright pupil may find it less difficult to pick up the new work in each class without hurry or discouragement, and the normal pupil obtains that which is so vital to him, the opportunity of going frequently over old ground without encountering mere repetitions.

The promotions, whenever they take place, will depend upon three factors—the teacher's knowledge of the child's capacity, the daily work, and examination results. The class examinations will, however, have other objectives besides that of determining promotion. They will be employed to estimate, not only individual, but class progress; to discover, not only individual, but class defects, and thus make it possible to remedy both. The school

curriculum is, or should be, a co-ordinated whole, of which the syllabus of each class is an integral and related part. It is evident that a curriculum may be excellently planned, but badly carried out. Hence it will be one of the head-teacher's most important duties to ascertain by means of periodic examinations whether, and to what degree, each class is fulfilling its task in relation to the curriculum as a whole. And it is to the interest of every class teacher that this testing process should be strictly carried out, since the aims of each will be rendered possible or seriously hindered according as the work of the teachers in the classes below has been thoroughly or imperfectly done. There is scarcely anything more calculated to bring about lack of unity between the members of a staff, with disastrous consequences to the tone of the school, than the feeling that some have not contributed their proper quota of energy or thought towards satisfying the demands of the curriculum. Hence a head-teacher who acts with justice and reasonableness will always find support for his criticism and structures in the acquiescence of his staff. There is, of course, no need to press the point that criticism should always be tactful and generally impersonal, that written comment upon the teacher's work should always be expressed in moderate terms and shown to the teacher concerned. With fair play on both sides there should be no grounds for friction. When, however, a school is plagued with a lazy or careless class teacher, the head-teacher must exercise every legitimate power he possesses to obtain better work; when a staff has an unreasonable head, each member has at least the right to preserve specimens of periodic class work to combat incorrect deductions made from the results of an examination on unfair lines. These are, it is to be hoped, very unusual conditions, and, no matter what measures may be taken, the efficiency of the school is bound to suffer.

The examinations should be held two or three times each year—under ordinary circumstances at the end of each term. In the lower and middle classes of the Upper School it would be sufficient if the written examination were confined to arithmetic and composition, with an individual test of progress in reading; the testing of the remainder of the school subjects might well be conducted as an oral class examination, from the results of which a fairly accurate estimate of the work done could be obtained. In the upper standard written answers would be required in other subjects, since one of the aims of school training is to give our pupils the power of expressing themselves. Nevertheless, the power of the older children to express themselves orally should be carefully noted, and regarded as an important part of the examination.

In drawing up the questions to which answers are required, the collaboration of the teacher should be invited. This may be done by arranging that some questions should be set by the class master or mistress, others by the head-teacher. The whole examination should be treated with ceremony calculated to impress without terrifying the children with its importance, and as a piece of juvenile responsibility foreshadowing the more serious responsibilities of after-school life.

If the head-teacher does not himself mark the papers, he should at any rate study them with the greatest care, for only by this means can he become fully aware of the exact points where weaknesses occur. He will not be surprised at finding deficiencies and defects, but will see in them opportunities for exercising just that function his office exists to fulfil. When the work has been marked and assessed, he has two duties to perform—viz., to help the individual children to correct their mistaken notions, and to help the teacher to remedy general weaknesses. He will therefore see that the children study their own cor-

rected answers, and that general faults are dealt with either by himself or the class teacher. He will also set apart a special time for discussing with his staff points of weakness disclosed by the examination results. Tact and sweet reasonableness, combined with perfect frankness and fearlessness, are valuable qualities at this juncture. They are not only valuable, but indispensable. The relation between head and class teacher is not that of employer and employee, for in the former case each is equally interested in the processes and results of the teaching. Everything depends on the maintenance of happy relations between the two. Collaboration rather than command should be the keynote of their relations. Hence the importance of selecting men and women as head-teachers who possess character and intuition in handling their fellows.

The question of homework scarcely arises in the Elementary School. In institutions for higher education, however, and especially in Secondary Schools, it becomes of prime importance. Up to the age of twelve or thirteen five and a half hours' instruction each day should be sufficient; more than this would probably result in diminished energy and bad health. If instead of large doses of homework certain parts of the school time were regularly set apart for independent work and private study, the scholar would not be deprived of the valuable training such individual work provides. If homework must be given in addition to this, it should not occupy more than about three-quarters of an hour per day.

The head or house master has the duty of supervising the organisation of homework. When, as is usual, a pupil has several teachers, each dealing with his own special subject, there is almost certain to be overpressure unless one person has the task of co-ordinating all the homework set. This individual has the function of seeing that the whole of the homework does not take even the slow members of the

class more than an agreed upon time. It is difficult to say what this time should be, and it will, of course, vary with the age and development of the scholar concerned. It is tolerably certain that far too much homework is usually given, involving a strain which should be entirely absent if a boy or girl is to grow into a healthy, happy man or woman.

All attempts to induce the pupils to declare how long they have taken over their work fail for obvious reasons. Few children will make frank declarations with regard to this matter, and should not be expected to. It would be far better to determine upon a low minimum, and let all additions be perfectly voluntary and partake of the nature of hobbies. Home life and influence are so vital to the education of the young that nothing should be required by the school which might force the child to isolate himself from the family for the greater part of each evening, as is so often the case. If mental health and efficiency are valuable things, then the head-teacher or some responsible person has a most important piece of supervising work with regard to homework.

Co-ordination of effort is of the highest importance, and if this is to be secured to the fullest possible degree, frequent interchange of thought must occur between the members of the school staff and between the latter and the head-teacher. This is a point the value of which in English Elementary Schools is often underrated. The hard-worked teacher is naturally unwilling to make a further drain upon his time by remaining after school hours to discuss school problems, and the head-teacher generally appreciates this point of view. It is not too much to say that in many schools nothing worthy of the name of a conference ever takes place. It ought not to be impossible to incorporate the conference as an integral part of the school organisation. An occasional rally for a few minutes around the

head-teacher's desk is of little use. The various problems are too difficult and of too serious a nature to be solved in this offhand fashion. The German teacher has to consider it part of his ordinary duty to appear periodically at school at an abnormally early hour, prepared with a written statement of his views upon a practical problem of school work. In England the relations between the class and head-teacher are different, and what succeeds in Germany by means of enforced meetings might in England succeed by means of a more or less social function. The informal discussion of the actual school problems around the tea-table might be productive of most beneficial results, and the social character of the function would prevent the teacher from feeling that he is giving up too much of his time to business.

That head-teachers of the three departments of a school should frequently confer needs no emphasis, but that the class teachers should do so is rarely considered necessary. And yet, if there is to be any real continuity in the mental life of the child, there must be a corresponding continuity in curriculum and methods from the lowest grade of the Infant Department to the top classes of the Girls' and Boys' Departments.

It is very desirable, too, that the staffs of schools which are related geographically or through common aims should communicate regularly. The schools contributory to one Secondary or Central School; those training the children of a particular social class; those engaged on some special work—for example, the Higher Grade, Higher Elementary, and Central Schools—can be thoroughly efficient only so far as they act in collaboration. Many most valuable educational secrets lie hidden in quiet class-rooms, and are never known for the common good. It is true that head-masters of such groups of schools do meet in conference, but this is quite insufficient. It is even more im-

portant that the teachers themselves should see more of one another and interchange ideas.

The conferences of teachers organised by Local Authorities, and in which inspectors frequently take part, are extremely valuable, but fall short of full usefulness owing to two great defects. In the first place, just the very teachers who most need their influence fail to attend, and, in the second place, the meetings are generally too large for getting full practical value out of them. The effect is generally stimulating, but transitory; they do not solve the problems which actually face the ordinary class teacher.

Every educationist would agree that the more the teachers confer and discuss and suggest in well-organised conferences, the better for education. But the utility of the big conference depends to a very large degree upon the regular functioning of the small conference between the head-teacher and the members of his staff. So important is this that educational authorities should provide every facility for it; the head-teacher should have the power to give a certain number of half-holidays a year, or to curtail the afternoon session in order to set the teachers free for this purpose. The larger conferences, such as those organised by the Local Educational Authority, should not take place during the recognised school vacations. As school hours and work are organised at present, the teacher needs every minute of the short holidays for recuperation and rest, and ought not to give up a week or even a day to attend educational conferences. If school hours were shortened, if enforced and unnatural promotions of pupils no longer occurred, and classes were reduced in size to fair proportions, then attendance at such conferences might be expected. In any case, attendance can never become compulsory in this country; it is therefore only by means of lightening the teacher's burden, and by ameliorating the conditions of service in every possible way, that he will in

the mass be brought to view his work less as a giving of so much labour for so much, or generally for so little, salary than as a profession in which he is collaborating, on cordial terms, with all that is most enlightened and sympathetic in the community. He may then feel that he is no longer an overworked and underpaid servant, but an active participant and co-partner in the highest form of social work—work for which he is willing and ready to sacrifice pleasure and leisure, even to the extent of attending teachers' conferences.

CHAPTER XI

SCHOOL GOVERNMENT

PSYCHOLOGISTS and educationists tell us that human character is what it is largely as a result of the social system; that nine-tenths of our thoughts and activities spring from and are directed, consciously or unconsciously, upon our communal life. Man is primordially a social animal. The reasoning power in which he sees himself differentiated from other animals took root and underwent development in the soil of the social instincts. He is almost entirely what he is as a result of the influences of family, city, national and international influences.

The aim, consciously held or not, of all school education is to fit the children to play a useful and worthy part in the life of the community as it is constituted at the time. If the Government is an autocracy, the aim will be to teach passive obedience to the rulers; fear, which is the motive power of the despotic Government, must become the motive power in the school. If the ruling power is a limited monarchy, the ideals of honour and the desire for honours and prizes must be the pivot of school government. In a true democracy the inculcation of virtue in its widest sense will be the basis of its education, and the ideals of equal opportunity and social usefulness will be seen in every part of school life. The great mass of schools in a democratic country will naturally be public schools mirroring the community which has brought them to birth. But it is essential to progress that a large amount of freedom for experiment should not only be tolerated, but encouraged.

In America and in England this freedom exists in full measure, and some advantage has been taken of it; neither France nor Germany has enjoyed this freedom to anything like the same extent.

The chief experiments have been made in the sphere of curricula, but there has also been a very large amount of experiment in that of school government. While the great mass of teachers has been content to follow the general track and adopt the simple method of humane but autocratic government, many have sought to find forms in which the pupil could learn to guide his conduct by means of an inner monitor, by the self-imposition of prohibitions and commands.

Professor Dewey has pointed out with great clearness one very common error in our methods of discipline and government. We all admit the necessity, he says, of preparing the pupils for the social life awaiting them, for the performance of social duties, and yet our school government is of a kind that seems to assume a non-social condition of things. We put the children in separate desks; they are rarely allowed to speak to one another; solitary or, as we misname it, independent work is strictly enforced; in fact, apart from school games, none of the school occupations is co-operative. How, then, he asks, can these methods train a child for his future activities as a member of society?

Some seek to give this training for citizenship by teaching what is called "civics." But a very cursory examination of human nature shows us that no theoretical instruction is capable of producing the man of action, and that the full realisation of the importance of responsible social action is not the result of talk, but of action. To train for efficiency in social life as a whole, the entire school life must be made use of; not some single branch of knowledge such as civics, nor any amount of hortatory counsel, can touch the fringe of this great purpose, but an organisation of all

school work and play is needed, the employment of every subject of the curriculum, and the socialising of every child activity so far as child nature will allow.

To rely upon the teaching of civics as a preparation for the social duties is to overlook the complexity and many-sidedness of life, and to ignore the fact that all this complexity is be found *in germ* within the walls of the school and playground. Even if this is not entirely true—if some adult duties do not appear in embryo in the school society—yet, since our educational aim includes not merely preparation for a future life, but assistance in living the actual present life, and since the actual life of the child is social to its core, it follows that the school should be organised through and through on the lines of purposeful co-operative activity.

This does not mean mere management by the pupils of their own disciplinary matters, sometimes called self-government, although with the growing power of reason and sensitiveness to co-operative purposes in school life the government should fall more and more into the hands of the class or school. The young child, ignorant of the grounds for the restrictions and positive commands forced upon him by adults, cannot be allowed to play fast and loose with matters so vital to himself and the stability of society. In a later part of the chapter we shall deal more in detail with the subject of self-government. In the meantime we wish to lay stress upon a means of educating for community life which has been much neglected and even ignored. The daily and hourly work of the school is the means to the end in view; all other means, such as instruction in "civics" and self-government, high-sounding though they may be, are of subsidiary value. The common task is the natural centre of activity in which the future responsible co-operative activities must find their source.

There is no need to demonstrate that school games, even when organised and conducted by the teacher, as will often be the case with infants, cultivate the spirit of give and take, and suggest the co-operative purpose and unity of effort required in the actual and future life of the child. When these games are spontaneously suggested and carried out by the class themselves, we approach the higher type of social group activities. But when the pupils in the course of their development begin to organise and manage their own sports, appoint their own officials, and as a group act independently of their educators, we obtain a state of things almost identical with the conditions of adult communal life. One important element of the latter is the choice of good leaders and the possibility of real success or real failure. Hence games have for long been regarded in England and America as an admirable and essential source of training. The Public Schools of England have been remarkably strong on this side, and have been able, possibly owing in some degree to the training afforded in the leadership of games, to furnish a supply of men whom native races naturally came to regard as born rulers. It is true that many native races are easily impressed by almost any type of white man, but the main contention as to the part played by the Public School is largely true. It is none the less true that the powers developed on the playing-fields—the spirit of fairness and esprit de corps and the concentration of mind on a common purpose—are more suited to the comparatively simple task of ruling half-civilised peoples than to the immensely complicated one of administrating and governing a highly civilised and progressive community. And there is little doubt that in this direction the Public Schools have been less successful. Using restraint in language, we may venture to assert that the Public Schools have in the past neglected the work side and concentrated all their energies on the play side of social

life. Co-operation for serious purposes has never been developed, and, after all, it is a serious matter to live. Perhaps human nature will never be able to envisage two aspects of life in anything like perfect proportion, but it is at any rate the duty of the schools to try to do so.

Hence we are drawn back once more to find the main sources of social education in the *work* of the school. While not neglecting opportunities offered by games, we must utilise the arithmetic, geography, history, manual, and all other serious work of the school, in the service of social training.

We have seen that the school tradition of separate and independent work, with all suppression of intercommunication and exchange of ideas, is a mistake. We shall try not to fall into the contrary error of giving too large a place to group work at the expense of that individual and independent thought and initiative which is vital to the growth of knowledge, will, and character. But the true teacher will, even in such work, always take up the position that the products of the children's minds and hands are the result of society's care and thoughtfulness, and that therefore they should be used for the benefit of the social fabric. Knowledge gained or power acquired should be freely and gladly passed on to others; our pupils shall tell the others the valuable facts they have discovered from reading and study; their class explanations and statements shall not be merely for the teacher's ear and satisfaction, but shall be used as a living means of conveying information of worth to their class-mates. A class is often wholly occupied in trying to give the answer which shall merely satisfy the teacher. Natural enough, perhaps, but it is the least important aspect of the process. The children know very well that the teacher knows the answer, and therefore their responses lack almost entirely the spontaneity which characterises intercourse in real life. Adopt the other attitude,

and the social training becomes evident at once. This type of work is much more common in America than anywhere else; even among American teachers we find the same free co-operative spirit exhibited in the institution of visits to other schools to see other teachers at work. There is very little of the dog in the manger attitude among American teachers. In this way only shall we succeed in training children to use their gifts and knowledge with a full sense of responsibility to the community.

We have no space in a book of this sort to deal in detail with the way in which problems arising in all the subjects of the school curriculum can be treated as material to which the whole class can contribute, either as individuals or as groups temporarily formed for the special purpose. Dr. Scott, in his work on "Social Education," gives numerous examples drawn from various school subjects of the way in which the ordinary work of the school can become a splendid means of training for the communal life which awaits every child. What we all need is a conversion of attitude. Most of us put ourselves into a position of opposition to our classes, not always, but frequently, by disregarding the socialising factors involved in all acquisition of knowledge and power; we succeed in conferring the knowledge or power upon individuals with a certain degree of friction, because the deepest of all instincts, the social, and the most appealing incentive, the altruistic, have been imperfectly used. And this conversion of attitude takes place directly we have seen the need for it, and must in smaller or greater degree affect our teaching.

The teacher's purpose, while it does and should play its directing and controlling part, must generally, and especially with younger children, remain unknown to the pupils. Too frequently it is not only in opposition to, but usurps the place of the joint purpose of the class. Sometimes this opposition is admittedly present, as when the

teacher decides what the child shall learn, and makes him learn it. It cannot be denied that this condition of things is sometimes necessary, but that it should be the regular atmosphere of the class-room is altogether a false notion of school activity. Sometimes the opposition is at first obscured, as when the teacher catches the spontaneous interest of an entire class by beginning a story, and either ends with a moral or evolves a point of grammar or a word-building lesson somewhat clumsily out of it. Sometimes, again, the skilful teacher, in accord with a law of interest, succeeds in interesting his pupils in a problem which is real to them, and then tries to take them through the necessary drudgery involved in attaining a scientific solution when they would have been quite content with a more empirical treatment of it, in attaining which they would have continued to give spontaneous interest. Professor Dewey often appears to go far beyond the purposes of his pupils and to inflict upon them long processes of instruction and activity in which their initial purpose is early lost sight of, with the resulting loss of acquired interest in the steps of the process which lead to the aim first envisaged. This method of decoy is often not without its value, but it labours under many disadvantages, not the least of which is that the loss of reality entails the destruction of the socialising force involved in all school work which is recognised as being of intrinsic value in itself.

Wherever the teacher has to deal with pupils or students not yet mature enough to be able to pursue a desired end through happy and unhappy work, through congenial and uncongenial and often numerous stages, he must, if he is not to lose the socialising effects of the training, let it be clearly seen that the work taken is real work, necessary to complete living. The young bootmaker or butcher occupied in a Continuation School will miss the most valuable part of his training—which is education for citizenship—if

his occupation and the part it plays in the work of the world, its relations with other trades, and the contributions from all other sections of labour and commerce, are not made the basis of his work in the school. The apprentice "sees the master or journeyman, whose rival he will become later, taking trouble to develop all the powers which will eventually make him a good fellow-workman. He sees the whole guild, trade association, factory institute, taking a lively interest in his own self. He sees and feels in the many regulations a loyal subordination of the individual to the majority. It would be astonishing if no vigorous germs of solidarity were to spring from these relations—at least, among the most efficient pupils. The development of that greater form of public spirit which we call love of country is only possible under these conditions."[1]

Dr. Scott describes another form of co-operative work which, under favourable conditions, is capable of general employment. In fact, many schools have already adopted something which closely resembles it. Three half-hours a week were granted the pupils of a Grade III. (eight to nine years of age) class to carry out individually or in groups any piece of work they might choose to plan. One condition was that what they began they must complete. Most of the pupils fell into groups and undertook the execution of varied plans. Some constituted themselves into a printing group, because one of the boys possessed some necessary materials and a little knowledge. The latter they increased by application to people capable of giving information. Others formed a farmer group, a firemen group, a Wild West group, a battle group, an arts group, a reading and dramatic group. When completed, the products were brought to the notice of the whole class, members of which commented upon and asked numerous

[1] Kerschensteiner, "Education for Citizenship," p. 68.

questions about their various aspects. The amount of eager research and labour spent upon these various projects and the practice in collaboration and leadership involved in them were certainly invaluable means for promoting the civic feeling of responsibility and common purpose.

It was found that the self-imposed problems were nine times out of ten problems drawn from real life, just as adult groups set themselves to solve in co-operation the problems of their social existence. The chief reason why only a portion of the school work can be conducted on these lines lies in the fact that they lack system and proceed along the zigzag course followed by the race. The short-circuits which could be obtained by systematically arranged knowledge or by well-graded steps in technical skill are impossible. Such a method, if used without discrimination, would result in the loss of even that degree of unity of thought and purpose which we aim to make the possession of the average child.

If this system of socialising the school work could be ideally carried out, there would be no need either for rewards or punishments. The success of the work, the intense pleasure of dealing with real tasks co-operatively, would constitute the only reward needed.

The failure of the task undertaken, the disappointed hopes, would never require any further penalty, and the question of order and discipline would scarcely enter in at all. Class management would be shorn of all its disagreeable oppositions and frictions, and a busy, eager little community would appear in the place of an aggregate of children ripe for distraction and mischief.

This ideal state, unfortunately, cannot be realised. Children and teachers are full of imperfections. Perfect plans by the teacher would encounter lazy, indifferent children, classes of very varied powers; perfectly homogeneous classes and normal children would encounter the

ordinary human teacher who makes mistakes, and only sometimes is aware of it. In addition to these eternal elements of imperfection, large classes, ill-timed promotions, the examination habit, and a thousand and one other unfavourable conditions, render the ideal unattainable. But if we are only aware of the direction in which progress lies; if, in other words, we grasp the idea of school life as communal and preparatory for citizen life, our work as teachers must at least be on the right lines and heading for the right goal.

Many teachers have already grasped this idea, and amid great difficulties are working out plans for school government on the lines indicated. A few quotations are here appended from an account by a London head-teacher,[1] descriptive of some of the means adopted to give the mass of pupils a training in self-government, self-help, and co-operation:

"As a means to the end," he says, "one tries to foster, with alertness of mental outlook, alertness of body, ability and willingness to undertake a task and to carry it on without constant supervision, a habit of accepting responsibility."

"The itinerary of a literary ramble through Dickens's London was drawn up and carefully annotated with explanations and quotations; a map was starred and numbered to correspond with sections of the itinerary, and the whole account was typed and bound in the school by a group of boys interested."

"On Dickens's birthday last year the boys' collections were massed into a Dickens Exhibition. It contained over 500 exhibits, and was freely visited by the girls and by pupils of the Evening Institute."

"One class has organised a reading club which buys magazines and books. The boys use the School and Public

[1] Mr. A. Linecar, late of the L.C.C. Oliver Goldsmith School.

Library, and the class-room is open at certain times, without restriction or supervision, to be used as a reading-room. The Public Librarian is a good friend to the school, and is always ready to give help or advice to individuals or groups of boys seeking special knowledge."

"At times a class prepares a play, and a dramatic representation is given by the upper part of the school every year. There is a school choir and orchestra, which have given many school and one or two public performances. These groups of pupils, together with the football, cricket, and swimming clubs, are encouraged to organise and manage their own affairs with as little help as possible."

So far we have discussed class government as if it were class work, and, indeed, these two cannot be kept apart. The idea that one may be a bad teacher but a good disciplinarian, while it contains an element of truth, is, viewed properly, false. The teacher's function is quite different from that of a policeman. Severity used as the chief means of securing good order and even good work must be condemned, and the teacher who resorts to it regularly has no title to be in the profession. Severity can only produce an unwilling slave or an independent spirit in revolt; it can never produce a true social unit.

We shall not confuse severity with control. The former is only one means of securing the latter, and one to be used only as a last resort. Good social habits must be initiated by all legitimate educational means. Habits are vital to adjustment, and in helping to form them, the teacher has to steer between the two opposite dangers of slavish obedience and anarchy. The habits he induces, such as punctuality, obedience, restraint in movement and speech, good manners, will at first be mere habits, enforced by every type of influence the teacher has at his disposal, even

to the point of extreme severity. As the pupil develops he must gradually be brought to see the reasons for certain demands made upon him, for the restraints that are placed upon him. The social view of the matter is the only one that can satisfy his intellect and heart—the need of restraint and self-control for the good of the class, the need of law and order for the sake of the common good. When this stage is reached, severity is almost obsolete, and where it is necessary the teacher will have such support from the class as a whole as will make the punishment almost a religious ceremony.[1]

When the age of reason has been reached, or, more definitely, when the pupils are developed enough to be able to understand why in general the teacher makes laws and regulations, this cordial support must be obtained, otherwise the social training is a failure. Teacher and class must pull together in this matter. According to Mr. Thistleton Mark, the American teacher succeeds in achieving this. He says that "the typical American teacher has a habit of getting behind the will of the child instead of confronting it."[2] In England much still remains to be done, both in Primary and Secondary Schools, to develop the notion of the common as opposed to the individual good. In spite of theoretical, moral, and civic instruction in French schools, the French teacher has not succeeded

[1] The following illustrative case is given by Dr. Scott. "A case of discipline had arisen, and the teacher said to a certain boy: 'Well, there is no doubt that I shall have to punish you.' The boy replied in the presence of the class: 'Oh yes, punish me; you are always down on me.' This touched the teacher, and, being human enough to flare up, he said impulsively: 'I'll leave it to the rest if you don't deserve it. More than that, I'll leave the class entirely to itself in deciding. I'll turn my face to the wall, and they can vote without my seeing them; and I'll never ask a boy how he has voted.' The vote was reported to the teacher as unanimously in favour of the boy's being punished. At this point the boy broke down completely, and through his tears said: 'Well, it must be right since everybody says so.'"

[2] Board of Education Special Reports, vol. x., part 1, p. 44.

in inducing this willing co-operation either between his pupils or between himself and them.

And now we come to what has too generally been regarded as the real problem of school government. The question as to how far the children themselves should or can take a hand in the school government—in executive and even in administrative functions—has in recent years come into the foreground. The problem is not unimportant, but in comparison with the much broader problem of transforming school studies into co-operative social activities it is insignificant. Self-government in varying degrees may be introduced into the school, but it cannot succeed in taking permanent root without growth in socialised self-control.

How far, then, if at all, shall the pupil help in the governing functions? The question has been answered in the Secondary Schools by the prefect system. Dr. Arnold of Rugby began a new epoch in Public School education by infusing a new spirit into the school, and one of the instruments of which he made great use was the plan of government by prefects. "Finding that the older scholars in such a society already wielded authority over the younger, he legalised this authority, placing responsibility on those whose attainments and character fitted them to bear it, and approving a period of service as 'fags' for those who were younger."[1]

The prefectorial system of the Secondary School is so well known that it is unnecessary to describe it. The system does not by itself produce good school government, for some schools employing it fail altogether to achieve anything like the character training we have described. Occasionally under prefect government there is a marked absence of esprit de corps, of the feeling of responsibility,

Findlay, "The School," p. 234.

of self-control, of "tone" generally. The policy of merely transforming police duties from the teacher to an oligarchy of pupils does not strike the highest note in the harmony of co-operative unity and socialised self-control. The spirit of opposition to authority may and often does exist under the prefect system, just the same as when teachers keep the government entirely in their own hands.

Attempts have been made to introduce the system into Elementary Schools. Some head-teachers have experimented on their own initiative; in some cases, as in Warwickshire,[1] the Local Education Authority has carried out a combined experiment in a number of schools. Mr. Jewsbury claims that a prefect system furnishes the apparatus for our pupils to acquire the high ideals which have existed as traditions in our Public Schools—

> "(1) By throwing the responsibility for good conduct on the pupils themselves.
> "(2) By making 'the common good the common care.'
> "(3) By utilising to the fullest extent the influence of personal example and responsibility to all around us for our actions and conduct.
> "(4) By appealing to higher motives and ideals.
> "(5) By providing opportunities for definite practical teaching in manners and morals."

The difficulty of the Elementary School pupils' youthfulness and of the often unfavourable nature of their home influences and general environment is met by limiting responsibility and by giving systematic teaching. Before

[1] The Warwickshire County Council has published an excellent account of its experiment with the prefect system, written by Mr. W. Jewsbury, M.A., Headmaster of the Gleecote Boys' School. Those acquainted with the pamphlet will recognise that it has been drawn freely upon in the above.

introducing the prefect system the ground is prepared by weekly addresses by the head-teacher upon various ethical and social aspects of child life, and at a favourable moment the idea of government by themselves is suggested. At first the prefects are selected by the head-teacher and staff, but when the pupils have come through experience to understand what such government involves and what qualities are needed the election is handed over either to the whole school or to the top classes. The senior prefect is chosen by the prefects themselves. In the schools of Warwickshire the prefects are classified according to their duties as district, school, class, and reserve prefects, the number of prefects varying, although it is considered better to have a large number in order to widen the distribution of responsibility as much as possible.

The system as actually at work in a London school is briefly as follows: The prefects are nominated, subject to veto by the head and class teacher, from the highest class only, by the pupils of that class. All boys throughout the school vote, and the chief prefect is elected by the whole body of prefects. Their duties consist in the general supervision of the conduct of children when outside the class-room, when out of teaching hours, and when outside the school; they supervise cloak-rooms and outside offices; they take the names of late-comers and bring them to "Snails' March" at the close of school; and they have the right to make suggestions for the good of the school. They have no jurisdiction inside the class-room, nor do they undertake purely "monitorial" duties. Among the privileges they enjoy are the wearing of the school badge on a special blue cloth shield; they support the head-teacher, facing the school at general assembly, and the chief prefects propose and second votes of thanks to distinguished visitors. As disciplinary measures they may send any child to the late line and compel detention for disobedience

or slackness, but every pupil has the right to come to the head-teacher at once and state his case if dissatisfied. They may summon delinquents before a full prefects' meeting, and they may finally recommend the head to cane or give lines. The prefects meet each week and draw up a report to be read to the whole school, and once a week they meet the head-teacher in his room to discuss general matters.[1]

It is scarcely to be doubted that in its best form the prefect system is a great improvement upon the old autocratic system of school government. Those who have tried it assert that it develops the prefect's own character, creates a sense of school honour among the other children, and smooths the whole work of the school. The effect upon the prefect's character will, however, be good or bad according as the principles of good school government are rightly or wrongly conceived and applied by the head-teacher, staff, and prefects. The latter may develop into spies or bullies or prigs; or, by seeking popularity, exhibit and develop a weakness of character harmful equally to the school and to themselves.

How does the prefect system affect the general mass of children? That, after all, is the most important question. We are told that "they have quickly learnt to respect and obey, especially where they themselves elect the prefects; they regard them as the guardians of the school honour, and come to share their care for that honour; the weaker ones look to them for protection; and every boy with ambition looks to the day when he will be a prefect himself, and honours the post accordingly. That wholesome deference to older boys, the embryo hero-worship, which is thought to be the slow product of Public School tradition, shows

[1] My thanks for the above account are due to Mr. G. G. Lewis, of Ellerslie Road School.

itself suddenly and without effort in schools without a past, and where the heroes are children of twelve and thirteen only."[1]

Sir Robert Baden-Powell refers to the prefect system being tried in Warwickshire as similar in principle to the Boy Scout movement, and believes that it may solve some of the chief difficulties of character-training in the Elementary Schools. He says: "In the Boy Scout movement, therefore, we have always had as our aim the development of character in each boy. Our system for inculcating this is, *inter alia*, to put responsibility on to the shoulders of the boy, to take him seriously, and to expect a great deal of him. We effect this by making the 'Patrol' of six boys our unit for work, under the permanent command of one boy with the rank and badge of 'Patrol Leader,' assisted by a 'Second' of his own selection. The Patrol Leader is held responsible for all that goes on in his Patrol. The results have been successful beyond expectation."

Important differences exist, however, between the prefect system and the Boy Scout movement—differences which may produce quite dissimilar results. The Boy Scouts are a voluntary association, and are conscious, within limits, of the purpose of their association. Their activities are of such a kind as throw responsibility upon every member of the Patrol, give constant occasion for co-operation, and at the same time demonstrate the need for and the value of both responsibility and co-operation. A Patrol of six or eight boys is very different from a class of forty or fifty, and affords many opportunities for every member of the unit to undertake some work valuable to the Patrol and to the community.

Unless the school can reduce these differences by means

[1] Pamphlet by Mr. W. Jewsbury and the Director of Education, Warwickshire County Council.

of social training of the kind described in an earlier part of this chapter; unless it can give to its pupils clear ideas of the school as a society, and develop the ideal of co-operation, it will never find in any prefect system the success which has followed the Boy Scout movement. It will be necessary to imitate Sir Robert Baden-Powell's plan more closely, and combine the prefect system with the Boy Scout movement. The groupings for co-operative work already described are probably the means by which this may be done.

We all have to guard against the imperceptibly progressive transference of our affections from the end or aim to the instrument or means. The more complex and organised the means, the greater the danger that this may occur. The prefect system is nothing more than one tool among many for the accomplishment of the highest work which can be undertaken—the training of character. A school may possess all the mechanism involved in such a system, and yet may fail in achieving this training. Only when it is kept living and fresh by the highest ideals and the most liberal views of what constitutes character can it be regarded as valuable. Only when it is found accompanied by other means such as those already described can it fulfil its proper function.

The prefect system seems to fall short in that the great mass of pupils receive little training in social co-operation. They often do not elect the prefects, who are imposed upon them by the head-teacher. They have no elective, no legislative, no executive functions, and often find in the prefect system nothing but a change of masters. When the prefects are popularly elected, and are made responsible, not only to the head-teacher, but also to their constituents, the corporate feeling is much more pronounced. Attempts to give form to this ideal of self-government have been made by admitting all the older scholars to a share in

both executive and legislative functions;[1] from an extension of such experiments we might come to realise what wonderful educational results may follow from trusting our pupils by conferring upon them a real measure of self-government.

In endeavouring to secure such valuable results, we must seek to work within the limits imposed by the nature of the child. Attempts to make school life closely resemble adult communal life have broken down usually just because the two can never be alike. The serious reality of the struggle to live and to make progress should not be brought into the school. The head of the school and the few regulations he makes exist to protect the pupils from the results of their serious mistakes, and to anticipate and ward off disastrous failures. Hence we shall always recognise the wide difference between school and society, and shall not try in the school to do more than prepare for the greater and graver functions of adult life. In another respect, too, we shall follow the child's nature. The consciousness of individual responsibility should not be forced too early; it is a very gradual growth, only finding its full development in manhood and womanhood. Hence the pupil's share in school government will begin in a small way, but with the growth of self-control and of informed ideals will be gradually and correspondingly increased. Facts are beginning to reveal, however, that the child is much more capable in this direction than we have hitherto supposed.

Many Secondary Schools have supplemented the prefect system by that of the house system. Where this is done, the whole school is divided longitudinally into sections varying in number according to the size of the school.

[1] The student should acquaint himself with the stories of "The Little Commonwealth," the American School City, and the George Junior Republic, and of the experiment described in "An Experiment in Educational Self-Government," by James Simpson. Liverpool: Henry Young and Sons, Ltd.

Each section consists of pupils of all ages; thus each house resembles a school within the school. The members of each house are encouraged to promote the interests of their house in every possible way, the older members by assistance in both work and play to the younger, and the younger by obedience and loyalty to the older. Within each house, therefore, there is a great deal of valuable co-operation and a certain amount of training in social duties; but the great principle upon which this system rests is not that of co-operation: it is rather the principle of competition which gives life to the whole organisation. The spirit of rivalry between the houses generally predominates over the spirit of co-operation within each separate house; stories of school life have always emphasised this feature; teachers have encouraged it, and it is only within recent years that the co-operative side has begun to receive the attention it deserves. It must be admitted that within the separate houses excellent training has been given; but the full value of such training can never be realised so long as so much is made of competition and rivalry. The circle of human beings to which a constant loyalty is encouraged should be an ever-widening one—the family, the group, the school, the town, one's native country—and where such groups are kept small and self-contained and the wider groupings are ignored, social training must become narrow and result in narrow sympathies. It cannot be denied, however, that the house system may be worked in such a way as to escape these disadvantages and to afford excellent training for after-school life.[1]

[1] EDITOR'S NOTE.—The house system is in operation in some Elementary Schools—*e.g.*, in Southampton—and is found to work well.

CHAPTER XII

OTHER SYSTEMS AND TYPES OF SCHOOLS

1. Scottish

Scottish education has a generally excellent reputation. To a large extent this reputation is deserved, and the reasons for this are to be found in the character and history of the people. The Act of 1696 is regarded as the Magna Charta of Scottish education. By this Act landowners were compelled to provide a school in each parish and to pay the teacher a fixed salary. One important reason for the low state of education in England before 1870 was to be found in the lack of power to impose local rates for education, and thus to develop the feeling of local responsibility. In Scotland the landowners have been subject to school rates for more than two centuries. By the Education Act of 1872, known as the Young Act, the Scottish Education Department was created, and the country divided up into School Board areas. Here, again, Scotland was thoroughly prepared to meet the changes. There was no question, as in England, of rivalry between Voluntary and Board Schools; the schools had for many years been entirely free from any religious difficulty. In England the intolerance of all parties produced friction and prevented development.

The Scottish educational system comprises Primary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools. Primary Education is compulsory between the ages of five and fourteen,

and was until recently under the control of School Boards,[1] supervised and guided, as in England, by the Education Department. Primary Schools are organised as Infant and Juvenile Departments. The Infant Department gives a two years' course, in which the elements of reading, writing, and arithmetic are taught. The school hours are shorter than in England, being generally from 9.30 to 12 and from 1.30 to 3.15. The Juvenile Department has three divisions—the Junior and Senior Divisions and the Supplementary Course. The Junior Division deals with a period of three years; the Senior with one of two or three years. At the age of twelve or thirteen a boy or girl may pass the "Qualifying" examination, which allows him or her to pass on to Supplementary Courses. It is perhaps here, during the last two years of Elementary School life, that Scottish education shows a marked superiority over that of England. The "marking time" so frequent in the top classes of the English Elementary School is, in Scotland, unknown. Comparatively few children leave school without the qualification mentioned. At this point some enter an Intermediate or Higher Grade School, while the remainder attend the Supplementary Courses. The pupil may now choose a commercial or industrial course; in the case of pupils of rural schools an agricultural, and of girls a household management course. The usual subjects pertaining to commerce or industry are taught, but the essential subject in every case is English. Large grants are paid to these Supplementary Courses, a state of things offering a strong contrast with that existing in English higher elementary education. After two years the pupil leaves with a merit certificate detailing subjects he has studied and the proficiency he has attained in each. Employers and the Scottish people generally hold all these

[1] By the Act of 1918, the School Boards were abolished and the Local Education Authority's administrative area much widened.

leaving certificates in great estimation; hence the certificates are generally carefully considered in appointments to posts in the commercial and industrial world.

The Secondary School system shows far greater uniformity than that of England, and the schools are in a much truer sense the people's schools. There is, speaking generally, nothing which corresponds with the great Public Schools in England or with the clean-cut social distinctions which appear in English education. Neither are these to be found in Scottish University education, which is everywhere open to the talent and industry of all social classes. In England, without valuable scholarships, it is almost impossible to study at the older Universities; in Scotland University courses are within the means of almost everyone.

The Boarding School in Scotland is rare; it would appear that the Scotch people attach great value to home training. In the Non-Boarding Schools the sexes are usually mixed, except where organisation can be made efficient without it, as in the large towns, and in the special commercial, industrial, and other courses necessitating separation.

The Intermediate School offers a three years' course of study, which includes one language other than English; the Secondary School, with its course of five or six years, takes the pupil up to the age of seventeen or eighteen.

In England the curricula of Secondary Schools are to a considerable extent controlled by a large variety of examinations; in Scotland a Leaving Certificate of the Scotch Education Department serves the useful purpose of producing a great degree of uniformity without interfering with the freedom and individuality of the schools. The "Qualifying" examination, as has been seen, is taken at about the age of twelve. The earliest moment for the Intermediate examination is at the age of fifteen, thus ensuring that the full three years' course has been followed.

Some Scotch educationists are opposed to this restriction, as preventing the brilliant pupil from going forward as quickly as he might. The post-intermediate stage extends from the age of fifteen to seventeen or eighteen, and is completed usually by the examination for the full Leaving Certificate. English and history count as one subject, and are compulsory. One other language besides English, and either mathematics or experimental science, must be taken. The other subjects may be selected at will from an official list. Head-masters and teachers are always consulted before the Certificate is granted or refused.

The Training Colleges for teachers have followed much the same lines of development as those of England. Scotch Universities have training departments and undertake pedagogical courses. Both England and Scotland, however, notwithstanding the fact that the University-trained teacher is fairly common in the Primary Schools, are behind Germany in their zeal for a thoroughly trained teaching profession, and there is still a large percentage of untrained teachers in both countries.

Scotland owes much to her teachers, to their capacity, industry, and independence of spirit. "To the very last the independent Scottish dominie refused to be bound by the courses of study of the Revised or any Government Code." The Scottish people, too, have taken an immense pride in the education of their schools and Universities. Teachers and people have created an atmosphere of sympathy out of common ideals, and work together in enviable harmony.

2. American

The Federal Government of the United States does not administrate and has no supervision whatever over the education of the country. The National Bureau of Education at Washington is scarcely anything more than an

office which collects educational information and statistics and makes them known to the public. It has no body of inspectors; it issues no codes, memoranda, suggestions or regulations, but leaves these matters entirely in the hands of each Federal State. Each State formulates its own laws with regard to education. The great outstanding feature of American education is its management by Local Authorities. Each city or county elects its own School Board *ad hoc*, which nominates a Superintendent who exercises almost despotic power. The schools of every city and county are supported by local taxation, with an occasional grant from the State in the case of necessitous areas. This supervision by the Local Authority covers Elementary, Higher, and University Education. The tendency in recent years with regard to the School Boards has been to reduce the number of members and to withdraw the elective power from the taxpayers, transferring it to the Mayor or chief officials of the area. There is no law, as in England, that women should sit on these School Boards, although it is frequently the case that they are so appointed. The American people, conscious of the corruption which often exists in municipal and political affairs, has endeavoured to withdraw education from such evil influences. This accounts for the tendency just mentioned and the almost despotic powers of the Superintendent.

American education, so far as the Public Schools are concerned, is entirely free, from the Elementary School to the University. To a large extent it is also co-educational, although there are many schools in which boys and girls are taught separately.

The system throughout the whole of the States shows wonderful uniformity, not, as we have already seen, by reason of the existence of laws enacted by the Federal Government, but as a result of common agreement and general consensus of opinion. The Middle and Western

States have founded their educational systems largely in imitation of those of the Eastern and longer established. For the masses of American school-children the Public Elementary School provides instruction between the ages of six and fourteen or fifteen. For children below the age of six there was, until recently, scarcely any provision. There is now a growing feeling that the years from four to six need educational supervision, especially in the case of the children of parents who have to leave home daily for work. Hence there is a rapidly increasing number of Kindergarten Schools, although at present the number of children receiving instruction at this early age is far smaller proportionately than in England. In the Public Elementary School the first four classes are called Primary Grades, and the last four Grammar Grades. As in England, large numbers of children do not complete even the full Elementary School course. Pupils who have passed through the full course may then graduate and pass into schools giving Higher Education. The High Schools provide a four years' course, extending from the age of fourteen to eighteen; and here, again, the number of pupils who drop out before the four years are completed is very considerable.

It must be remembered that in America the word "Public" signifies belonging to and controlled by the State. In England, as we have seen, it has quite a different meaning. The Public Schools, large Private Schools, and Colleges of England are represented in America by the "Academies," and much that can be said of English Public Schools can also be said concerning the American Academies. The latter are, for the most part, residential; the State High Schools are generally Day Schools. According to Sir Michael Sadler, there are signs of reaction in America against the idea of a Government or Municipal monopoly in the supply of Secondary Education, and he himself is in favour of such private effort and initiative,

combined with some sort of State supervision. The High Schools of America are a direct outgrowth of the Elementary Schools, and provide post-elementary instruction. The Academies, on the other hand, contain pupils of Elementary School age, and deliberately prepare for future College life. The High Schools do not make this their objective, but give an education which is more or less complete. It is true that many thousands of pupils pass from them to higher forms of education, but the main aim of the High School is to prepare for practical life. It is also probably correct to say that the High Schools cater for the average pupil, and the Academies pay greater attention to the brilliant pupil. Pupils who desire to continue their education pass from the High Schools and Academies to the "College," which provides a four years' course, from eighteen to twenty-two, or, if desirous of becoming a teacher in a Public Elementary School, they may proceed to the Normal School, following there a two years' course, the first of which is largely academic. From the College the way is open to the State University, thus taking the pupil up to the age of twenty-five. Many Americans consider that this "ladder of education" is unduly long, and that it might be beneficially shortened. Behind this view there are strong economic reasons why a young man should enter upon his professional or business career at an earlier age than twenty-five.

Strictly speaking, the American College undertakes undergraduate work leading to a degree, and the University both undergraduate and post-graduate work. It is hence possible for many High School students to omit the College course altogether, and to pass direct from the High School to the University. By this means the economic difficulty involved by a too prolonged education is obviated. College and University education is sometimes entirely free. Wherever fees are charged, they are so small that

they cannot be regarded as a hindrance in obtaining the highest education the country provides.

There has been in recent years a remarkable impulse towards technical training of all kinds, especially that suitable for the period between the ages of fourteen and seventeen. Commercial education, which is much older than industrial, now occupies a very prominent position. The regular "Business Schools," which are in private hands, at present contain the greater number of pupils. The Public High Schools giving commercial education are, however, making great headway. In addition, commercial education is given in Private High Schools and in the Academies, in Normal Schools, and in Colleges and Universities. There are now more than 2,600 Commercial Schools, with a roll of nearly a quarter of a million pupils. Economic pressure and the large growth of towns on the one hand, and on the other the ideal of providing a practical education, have brought about an equally great development of the industrial schools; these, again, are mostly in private hands.

The Technical Colleges are of three kinds: entirely private foundations, foundations which are partly private and partly subsidised, and those connected with Colleges and Universities. The conditions of entrance are not uniform, but in general a High School certificate or the passing of a special examination gives right of entry. The course is generally one of four years, the first two being party professional and partly general, the last two years entirely professional. The degree of Bachelor of Science may be obtained on the completion of the course.

The Normal Schools, in which the Elementary School teachers are trained, differ in some important respects from the Training Colleges of this country. There is no common certificate which gives the right of teaching in every part of the country, as is the case in England. The

licences to teach which are granted are very frequently valid only in the town or district which controls the Normal School. As a rule, candidates for the Normal School must possess a High School diploma. The "Teachers' Colleges" are primarily for the purpose of training Secondary School teachers, and for those undertaking educational administrative work. In many cases they provide a post-graduate course, leading to the degrees of Master and Doctor of Pedagogy. In others it is an undergraduate course, completed by the degree of Bachelor of Pedagogics. The Teachers' College, Columbia University, is probably the greatest and most efficiently furnished and staffed institution of its kind in the world.

In America we thus find a real system of education, remarkable for the large amount of uniformity which exists over such a large area. The description given naturally overlooks various points where the system shows irregularities and incompleteness; where it is good, it is very good; where it is bad, it is also very bad, and outside the Eastern and Middle States and California the educational system exhibits many serious deficiencies in its actual working. One general feature we find lacking. Since large numbers of American children finish their education with the completion of the Grammar Grades, it would appear that there is a real necessity to provide such children with an education in some way different from that provided for those passing into the Public High School. In our own country, to meet this state of things, we possess Higher Grade, Higher Elementary, and Central Schools, and there is a growing feeling in America that some more suitable preparation should be given to such pupils in the last three or four years of the Elementary School course.

In addition to the above scheme there are large numbers of evening schools, and the free lectures given to persons of all ages are extremely well attended.

3. German

The object of German education is, or before the war was, mainly to secure and maintain the pre-eminence of the State. By imposing a system—organisation and curricula—by excluding freedom of initiative, and training the nation in obedience to the State, this aim was approximately achieved. No chance of deviating from the system was allowed; the State controlled all forms of education, and, within the limits of its narrow aim, was thoroughly efficient.

The Central Authority is the Ministry of Public Worship and Education, with three departments—one for University, Secondary, and Technical Education, one for Elementary and Middle Schools and Training Colleges, and another for Public Worship. Prussia is divided into fourteen Provincial School Boards, chiefly for higher education, and into thirty-seven counties for lower education. The Local Authorities are School Committees, which in the towns delegate their powers to School Commissions, bodies analogous with the English school managers. District and Local School Inspectors supervise, the former frequently and the latter generally being clergymen.

In Prussia about 3 per cent. of the children attend Middle and 7 per cent. Secondary Schools. In spite of these facts, about 25 per cent. of the money grants goes to Secondary Education.

Primary School Education begins at six, and is not compulsory beyond the school year in which the age of fifteen is reached. The education of children below school age is mostly in philanthropic hands. The crêches take children up to the age of three for a small fee, and older infants of parents who go out to work are received into day homes, where food but no instruction is provided. Kindergarten Schools are attended by children belonging

to a better social class, and their purpose is educational; there is a slowly-growing tendency to give these schools official recognition and support. In most schools the sexes are mixed, although co-education is, on the whole, regarded unfavourably. School medical inspection is perfunctory, especially in rural districts, and treatment is provided by voluntary associations and by the public clinics.

Elementary Education in Germany aims at producing citizens who shall be religious, patriotic, and obedient to authority, and the realisation of this ideal is sought in a curriculum containing religion, German (including grammar), geometry, and arithmetic; history, geography, and the elements of natural science, singing (but little theory or sight singing), drawing, physical training, and needlework for girls. Manual training is rarely undertaken. Primary Education is complete in itself, and cannot be used as a stepping-stone to Secondary Education. The way is blocked by the early preparation needed for entrance to a Secondary School.

The Middle Schools of Prussia correspond to our own Higher Elementary Schools, and as reorganised in 1910 mark the attempt to cope with the new necessities of industrial and commercial life. There is no scholarship system, or, indeed, a plan of any kind to obtain the right kind of pupil; anyone can attend such a school on payment of the fees, which are usually less than half those of Secondary Schools. These schools please few; they are insufficiently distinct from the Elementary Schools. There are Continuation Schools which prepare much more thoroughly for the future occupation; the reformers see in them another obstacle to their hopes of Secondary Education for all; and owing to various reasons the Middle Schools are little more than a means by which a slight social distinction is conferred upon the parents sending children to them.

The thoroughness with which Germany has insisted upon training its teachers is one of the most remarkable features of the German system. After the completion of the Primary School Course, the candidate for the teaching profession enters a Präparanden-Anstalt for three years, afterwards passing into the Training College proper for another three years. He then obtains a Provisional Certificate as a result of a leaving examination, and begins his work as a teacher, for the first year without salary, for the second as a Hilfslehrer with a minimum salary of £40. There is then, or later, a second examination, after which he becomes recognised as a full-fledged teacher. If chance places him in a University town, he may find opportunities of studying for an examination which will allow him to teach in the Mittel-Schule; and even for the Rektor examination, which may finally lead him as far as the County Inspectorate. If this chance fails him, he is left to pursue his career with the elementary equipment provided by a German Training College, and handicapped by six years of isolation from the general life of the nation.

Secondary Education is as thoroughly organised as Primary; in fact, the State has given greater attention and care to the training of its future officials, clergymen, business and professional men, than to that of the proletariat. The education of the middle and upper classes is much more liberal and varied, although the general method of giving information by word of mouth and then demanding its reproduction is prevalent everywhere. The course of development by which the Gymnasium, or purely classical school, lost its monopoly of Secondary Education and the exclusive right of entry to the Universities is of great interest, and must be known in order to understand German education of to-day. Secondary Schools may now be classified as those providing a nine years' or a six years' course, from the age of nine to eighteen or nine to sixteen.

All the schools of the first type may pass their pupils on to the University. The three types of such schools are: The Gymnasium, giving a purely classical education; the Realgymnasium, combining the classical and the modern, and teaching Latin, but not Greek; the Ober-realschule, having a purely modern course of study, consisting of modern languages, mathematics, and science. Corresponding with these three types are the schools with six-year courses—the Progymnasium, the Realprogymnasium, and the Realschule. No provision is made whereby pupils may enter Secondary Education at an age later than nine; hence the decision in this matter and with regard to the type of Secondary Education has to be made far too early, and the decision is practically irrevocable. In recent years there has been a strong tendency to postpone the age at which Latin is begun, with the result that various German States have permitted the foundation of Reform Schools—Reformgymnasien and Reformrealgymnasien—in which the study of French is begun at ten and of Latin at thirteen. In the Reformgymnasien of the Frankfort type Greek is not begun till the age of fifteen.

The training of Secondary School teachers is very thorough. After a full course at a nine-year Secondary School and three years at a University, the candidate takes a written and oral examination which includes the subject of pedagogy. One year is then spent at a Training College or Secondary School recognised for the purpose; following this is a Probationary year as a teacher in a Secondary School, in which eight or ten hours' per week teaching, without salary, is done. Instruction and criticism accompany this work. The provincial examining body may now recognise the candidate as suitable for appointment.

Most States have a system of compulsory continuation education up to the age of seventeen or eighteen, thus

possessing the enormous advantage of providing the means for consolidating and carrying forward the instruction received in the Elementary Schools, and of supervising that most difficult period of life called adolescence. The Continuation Schools of Munich are well worth special study. Taking an intermediate position between Continuation and Technical Education are the Gewerbeschulen. There are also large numbers of Lower and Higher Commercial Institutes, Technical, Agricultural, and Art Institutes, and in addition a system of very efficient Commercial High Schools.

4. French

The French system of education, considered as one of the prime factors in the production of the wonderful culture and creative activity of all types which characterise the France of to-day, is worth close study. We cannot, however, do more than indicate in this short account its salient features.

The organisation of French education offers the best example of centraiised administration. The Minister of Education is responsible to Parliament for the administration, conduct, and curricula of every type of school in the country—University, Secondary, and Primary. Each of these divisions is in charge of a Director, who in his turn is responsible only to the Minister. Consultative Committees assist both Minister and Directors; and "General Inspectors" act as intermediaries between the Minister and the Local Authorities.

The whole country is divided into seventeen educational districts, called Academies, all but two having their centres in University towns. The head of the University, called the Rector, supervises all types of education in his own Academy, and is assisted by one or more Academy Inspectors. In the local control of Primary Education

the Rector shares his powers with the Prefect, concerning himself with general matters rather than with detailed organisation and supervision. A Departmental Council, consisting of the Prefect, Academy Inspectors, Directors of Training Colleges, elected members, a body of Primary teachers, and two Primary Inspectors, deals with the Elementary Education of each department. The smallest educational unit is the Communal School Commission, consisting of the Mayor, the Primary Inspector, and delegates from the Municipal Council and Canton.

Primary School Education is compulsory between the ages of six and thirteen. There are Écoles Maternelles, open from 7 in the morning until 7 at night, for infants whose mothers go out for daily work. These schools make little or no pretence to be of the kindergarten kind, and their atmosphere is one of work; reading, writing, and number are taught, and emphasis is laid upon the establishment of good physical and moral habits. Classes Enfantines form the link between the École Maternelle and the Primary School. Where no École Maternelle exists, they fulfil the educational function of both. Where neither of these types exists, the Elementary School may admit children at the age of five.

French Elementary Education recognises three stages —the Lower Course, from seven to nine; the Middle, from nine to eleven; and the Upper, from eleven to thirteen. The latter is often non-existent, as an examination successfully passed at the end of the Middle Course excuses further attendance. The full Elementary School Course is sometimes followed by a further year of more advanced work in a Supplementary Course (Cours complémentaire); in the towns this may be replaced by a full two or three years' course in a Higher Primary School. The subjects of the curriculum of the ordinary Elementary School are: Moral instruction, civics, the mother-tongue, history and

geography, elementary science, arithmetic, drawing, singing, manual training (needlework for girls) and physical training. Moral instruction is the French substitute for religious teaching, and in the hands of an inspiring teacher may be formative of ideals and character, but with a feeble teacher and no Bible as a textbook becomes a drab affair. Civic instruction is given in close correlation with the moral, and tends often to become equally ineffective, the analysis of civic facts and duties being begun too early. The teaching of the mother-tongue is the most striking feature of French education, and merits the study of all English teachers. Manual training is limited to work with paper and cardboard.

The Higher Primary Schools of France correspond to the Middle Schools of Germany and the Higher Elementary and Central Schools of this country. The number of pupils enjoying this higher education, which prepares them to enter Trade and Technical Schools, or to take higher rank in industrial occupations, is not large. There is very keen competition for entry, and the number of scholars accepted is always far below the demand for places. The course extends over three years, as in England, with a further extension, sometimes, of one year. Examinations take place at the end of each year, those failing giving place to others. As in other countries of Europe and in America, many leave before the completion of the full course, and thus fail to derive full benefit from it. In the first year the curriculum is common to all. The other years provide a general industrial, commercial, or agricultural course of instruction.

Each Department of France possesses a Training College for men and one for women. These Écoles Normales are under the control of the Rector of the Academy, and each has a Director or Directress at its head. The entrance examination is competitive, the candidates

being between sixteen and eighteen years of age, and holding the "brevet élémentaire." The Training Colleges of France do not supply nearly sufficient teachers for the Primary Schools; the numbers are made up by contributions from the various types of higher educational institutions. The training course is one of three years. At the end of the second year an examination is held, success in which confers the "brevet supérieur." After the conclusion of the full Training College course and two further years of teaching, success in another examination gives the "Certificat d'aptitude pédagogique," entitling to full recognition and appointment. In addition to the ordinary, there are two Central Training Colleges, which prepare for teaching in the Écoles Normales.

The Secondary School is for all practical purposes quite independent of the Primary. The French educational system resembles the German in having no ladder of education reaching from the Elementary School to the University (as there is in America and to a degree in England), and there is in France little or no demand for the "common school." The organisation of Secondary Education is throughout the country on similar lines; its different types of instruction, corresponding to the different "sides" of our own schools, being found in one and the same institution. The Lycée is provided and maintained by the State, the Collége by the municipality; in other respects the differences are insignificant.

At the head of the Secondary School is the Head-master or Proviseur, who is assisted in matters of discipline by the Censeur, and in matters of management by the Économe. The Proviseur does very little teaching, and on the whole has very little knowledge of what goes on in the class-rooms in the actual work of teaching. The Secondary School Course is divided into two cycles, the first of which consists of classes 6, 5, 4 and 3, the second

of classes 2 and 1 and a Philosophy and Mathematics Class. The school which prepares for the Lycée proper contains a Preparatory Division having a two years' course, and an Elementary Division, also of two years. At the age of eleven the French boy may enter the first cycle of the Lycée proper. In the second cycle, begun at the age of fifteen or sixteen, he may select one of four courses —the Latin and Greek course, Latin and Modern Languages, Latin and Science, Modern Languages and Science. All the other subjects are common to the four groups. The whole of French Secondary Education is directed towards the passing of the Baccalauréat examination, which gives admission to professional courses at the Universities and to Polytechnics. The first part of this examination is taken after Class 1, which is called the Rhetoric Class, the second part after the year of Philosophy and Mathematics.

Secondary Education for girls has lagged behind that for boys. While the last few years have seen great developments in the education of girls, French public opinion and educational authorities still tend to underrate its importance and necessity. The number of Lycées and Colléges for girls is comparatively small. Such schools provide a course of five years, with sometimes an extra year to give opportunities of qualifying for entrance to Training Colleges for Secondary Teachers. There is no study of the classical languages, and an Englishman is struck by the almost total absence of sports.

The training of Secondary teachers offers a very strong contrast with that of Germany. In France the practical side of the training has been rather neglected. In the Higher Normal Schools, where this training is carried on, a three years' course is given. Candidates enter by means of a competitive examination, and after two years are examined for the Certificat d'Aptitude in Secondary

teaching. The third year is spent in preparation for the examination known as *agrégation*, which corresponds roughly to the standard of the London M.A. degree. Only a limited number are admitted each year to this examination.

On the whole, it must be said that the French characteristic of logical consistency has produced in its educational system a centralisation of organisation and a uniformity in type of school, curricula, and methods, which is bound to hamper progress. On the other hand, the thoroughness and enthusiasm with which administrators and teachers have laboured to achieve the national ideals have done much to mitigate the natural effects of working within these narrow limits.

CHAPTER XIII

ORGANISATION AND CURRICULA UNDER THE ACT OF 1918

THE Education Act of 1918, known popularly as the Fisher Act, represents the cumulative effect of years of quiet growth among the people of the conviction that education is a vitally important matter to the material prosperity of the nation, and this conviction was greatly quickened during and because of the war. The working classes have become alive to this notion, and rightly see in it the only secure foundation for their industrial and political freedom. The world of business has long been demanding improvements in both Elementary and Secondary Education of a kind about which their ideas are both obscure and conflicting. The Board of Education has been in a position, and has made excellent use of its position, to guide public and even professional thought into proper channels, and, probably more important than all, various associations, for the most part connected with the teaching profession, but including men and women not in its ranks, have laboured unremittingly to bring about an organisation of education corresponding to their informed ideals. The recent Education Act is the result.

Organisation of education is not everything, and when an excellent organisation exists for the purpose of securing to the nation merely material success among keen international competitors may produce unenviable results. The ideal of social efficiency tends to take the more visible form

of industrial and commercial efficiency, and, unless we look beyond this to ideals of character and brotherhood, will land us in the grossest materialism. Nevertheless, the connection between the material and the spiritual is close; just as better housing is likely to diminish the drinking habit and crime in general, so a better status for the teacher and a more efficient education for the pupil are likely to be conditions favourable to mental and spiritual development. The extra care which under the Act is to be given to the health of the children, and the greater attention which is to be bestowed upon the last years at the Elementary School, are examples of this improved organisation; but in the long-run everything will depend upon the teacher, his ideals and methods of using the new and better material means now at his disposal.

In the Education Act of 1918 striking progress has been made towards the establishment of a national system. It becomes now the duty of Councils of every County and County Borough to provide "for the progressive development and comprehensive organisation of education in respect of their area." No doubt such Councils are already attempting with varying degrees of success to do this; but their efforts are in future to be supervised more closely and co-ordinated more thoroughly with the work of other Councils. Each Council, therefore, "may and shall, when required by the Board of Education, submit to the Board schemes showing the mode in which their duties and powers under the Education Acts are to be performed and exercised." By calling upon the Education Authority to produce its own schemes, the Board of Education encourages variety and initiative, and avoids the uniformity which is such a striking characteristic of the French system. These "schemes" will, if liberally treated by the Central Authority, do much to vitalise education throughout the country.

A further step towards unification is taken by the Act in that it gives power to two or more Local Education Authorities to combine if they wish with respect to any of their powers under the Education Acts, and to delegate any of those powers, except that of raising a rate, to a joint committee or a joint body of managers. This they may do without the express sanction of the Board of Education. But a still further step in the same direction may be taken. If two or more Councils apply for permission, the Board of Education may "by scheme provide for the establishment and (if thought fit) the incorporation of a federation" for administering educational matters "which it is necessary or convenient to consider in relation to areas larger than those of individual Education Authorities." It is possible that this section of the Act may pave the way to the gradual formation of federations which will tend to affiliate an increasing number of Local Education Authorities, so that finally the whole country may be divided into a comparatively small number of educational administrative areas, resembling closely the "provincial associations" which appeared in the Bill as first introduced. A University would probably become the home and headquarters of each great federation. Obvious advantages would result from such a sequence of events; it might even end in the Board of Education delegating most of its detailed supervisory duties to the federations, and itself becoming an institution resembling in essentials the National Bureau of Education at Washington. Whether these consequences ensue or not, it is certain that coordination and economy of effort will be greatly facilitated by the formation of such federations.

In dealing with the recipients of education the Act is astonishingly wide in its scope. No great needs of life are neglected; body and mind both receive increased attention, and the former comes more into the foreground; out-

of-school activities come at last within the purview of the educator; play takes a position it never held before; health is regarded as of fundamental importance, and sickness is compulsorily dealt with; infancy, childhood, and adolescence are at last envisaged as an unbroken sequence of progressive development.

Attendance at school is made compulsory until the age of fourteen, and Local Education Authorities may by by-laws extend this compulsory period to the age of fifteen. The half-time system is abolished, no exceptions being permissible between five and fourteen. Where the raising of the school age involves hardships upon parents, the Local Education Authorities are empowered to provide "maintenance." Hitherto the Elementary School has been handicapped in its efforts to use efficiently the last year or two of its pupils' school life. Many children cease attendance on some ground or other at thirteen; others gain scholarships to Secondary, Trade, Central, and Higher Grade Schools. So large a number are withdrawn in these ways that the top classes are often very small, and have for economy to be combined under one teacher. The result has been seen in the "marking time" so common a feature in the top classes of the Elementary Schools. Larger senior classes will now give the teacher an opportunity of dealing with these scholars more adequately, and he will be still further assisted by other provisions of the Act which we may now note.

Under the new Act further restrictions are imposed upon the employment of children of school age. No child under twelve may be employed at all; a child of the age of twelve or upwards shall not be employed on any Sunday for more than two hours, or on any school-day before the close of afternoon school, nor on any day before 6 o'clock in the morning or after 8 o'clock in the evening. A Local Education Authority may, however, under certain condi-

tions, permit a child to be employed for one hour before and one hour after school. All this is to the good, but does not go nearly far enough. If the reader cares to calculate, he will find it is possible for a child between the ages of twelve and fourteen to spend the usual 27½ hours per week in school and in addition 26 hours and even longer in some form of employment. Moreover, the Act allows the child to work 86 hours per week during holidays. If the suggestions of the Committee on Wage-Earning Children are listened to, modifications of this section of the Act will be made which may mitigate some of the evil results; but something more than modifications are required—drastic changes are needed. For the moment we merely note that the Act marks progress, and does something to facilitate the school training of the older scholars.

The Nursery School has long been the aim of many reformers who regard the present Infant School or Department as an institution attempting to pursue clashing ideals, the lower section taking infantile home pursuits and happy natural activities as the media of education, the upper devoting much of its energy to formal education and bookish occupations. In the lower part of the Infant School the children are treated as babies; they play, talk, do what is natural for them to do, sleep, and in general lead a thoroughly ideal home life. In the upper part their play becomes more of a drill; formal exercises in number and reading are substituted for instruction hidden in games and natural occupations; home surroundings, such as chairs and tables, give place to desks and the bondage they bring with them; in fact, the infants' heaven sinks somewhat suddenly below the horizon. This change is inevitable, but it has frequently been questioned whether one institution can satisfactorily carry out two such different types of education, and the Nursery School, already proved to be a successful experiment in private

hands, will probably become the general organisation for providing the training which at present is given in the lower classes of the best Infant Schools. The aim will be, not to provide formal instruction, but to do what can be done to produce healthy, well-nourished, physically robust, mentally alert, happy infants. So long as the education of these infants is in the hands of suitably trained and competent persons, the transfer of functions to Nursery Schools should be beneficial, but the Draft Regulations recently issued seem purposely framed to allow the work to get into incompetent hands. If "women of sufficient general education, who have proved their practical capacity in other forms of service," and young persons of the "supplementary teacher" type, are to be officially considered as desirable persons for expert work of this kind, the Nursery School will never efficiently perform the educational and social functions expected of it.

It will now be the duty of a Local Education Authority "to make or otherwise to secure adequate and suitable provision by means of Central Schools, central or special classes, or otherwise," of "practical instruction suitable to the ages, abilities, and requirements of the children," and courses of advanced instruction for older scholars and for children who remain at such schools beyond the age of fourteen. It is to be presumed that the brightest pupils—at any rate, of those who find their chief means of development in books—will, as now, be transferred to Secondary Schools at about the age of twelve; that many of those remaining in the Elementary School will develop their individuality and powers best under courses of instruction which emphasise manual activities; and that some of the others will receive benefit hitherto denied them from advanced instruction of a kind suited to their special powers. Implicit in these proposals is the possibility of achieving Elementary School traditions, and of reproduc-

ing in the Elementary School the atmosphere and feeling which exist in the upper forms of every good Secondary or Public School.

Under the Act it becomes obligatory for all young persons—that is, those between the ages of fourteen and eighteen—to attend Continuation Schools for 320 hours in each year. During the first seven years after the "appointed day," the attendance will be compulsory only for those between the ages of fourteen and sixteen, and the number of hours may be reduced to 280 if the Local Education Authority so resolve. The hours so used must be taken from the employers' time, with a margin to allow of recuperation. The Continuation Schools will be of three types—those entirely under the control of a Local Education Authority or of several acting in co-operation; those the establishment and maintenance of which are "secured" by the Local Education Authorities—for example, by the help of voluntary bodies and individuals, but which are nevertheless under the control and direction of a Local Education Authority; and private Continuation Schools, entirely provided, organised, and maintained by unofficial bodies or individuals. In the latter class of school fees may be charged, in the two former education is free. This permission for individuals and unofficial bodies to found and carry on Continuation Schools will probably result in flexibility and variety of curricula, and in valuable experiments that will demonstrate which lines the education of adolescents should follow. The State has thus come to see the urgent necessity for some form of training which shall aim at a preparation for manhood and womanhood, and which shall bridge the dangerous gap, known as adolescence, between child and adult life, the period of storm and stress, when circumstances largely decide whether a boy is to become a citizen or a hooligan, a social unit or a rebel.

The mere provision of continuation instruction with compulsion to be present when it is given will not regenerate the nation; everything will again depend on the teacher, whether he is a person of sound education, with experience of life, of wide and liberal views, and, above all, whether he possesses ideals and sympathy. The anticipated immediate supply of any sort of teachers for these schools is ludicrously inadequate; yet so important is this matter that every incentive should be offered which might appeal to the type of man or woman required. An inexorable law—that status and remuneration must be high to attract the best men and women—governs almost universally the choice of profession, preaching and teaching not excepted, and through neglect of this law almost any sort of person has often been, and will still be, able to enter the profession and do his or her share in retarding the intellectual and moral growth of the community. The country is but ill-prepared to make this section of the Act a means of regenerating the community. Few Local Education Authorities have as yet advanced far with their task of obtaining and training teachers for the work of the future Continuation Schools.

Nothing is said in the Act with regard to the training of these teachers. One point seems clear: they must not be trained on the same lines as are teachers of Elementary Schools at present. They are to teach young men and women who are out in the industrial and business world, mixing with all sorts and conditions, bearing responsibilities, and earning their own living. Hence for instructors of such pupils the seclusion of an ordinary Training College and particularly of a residential college is out of the question. Everything possible should be done to give them full opportunities of meeting and mixing with all types of men and women, in Universities, polytechnics, workshops, factories, offices, and foreign countries. Only

by these means will it be possible for them to establish living and fruitful contact with this new kind of pupil. Formal instruction will naturally play its part in the new teaching, but will be only one element of it. Hitherto the training of teachers has not unnaturally emphasised this side, but we shall be compelled by the new conditions to change our methods. The Continuation teacher will seek less to furnish the memory with useful information than to stimulate new interests, to train his judgment, and create a desire to use it fairly. He has also to make instruction attractive; if he cannot do this, he will have failed completely. His pupils will neither listen nor pretend to listen; will show respect neither for him nor his subject. While there are means of making the Elementary School child listen, however bored, and assume an appearance of respect, there will be none in the Continuation School but interest.

In many other directions the duties and powers of the Local Education Authorities have been extended, and especially valuable to the nation are the duties and powers connected with the maintenance of health and the treatment of sickness. Local Education Authorities "may, with the approval of the Board of Education, make arrangements to supply or maintain or aid the supply or maintenance of—

"(*a*) Holiday or school camps, especially for young persons attending Continuation Schools;

"(*b*) Centres and equipment for physical training, playing fields . . . school baths, school swimming-baths;

"(*c*) Other facilities for social and physical training in the day or evening."

The Boy Scout and the School Journey movements—the latter almost entirely in the hands of teachers—have

taught the value of holiday and school camps; Elementary School teachers have demonstrated what can be done educationally by means of the swimming-bath; and the Central Authority now officially recognises these activities and encourages their general adoption. If good use is made of the power to make grants for these purposes, sufficient experience may soon be gained to justify still wider applications of the principle of open-air education.

Much is done in the Act to discover and deal with disease. By the Education (Administrative Provisions) Act of 1907 it became the duty of every Local Education Authority controlling Elementary Education to provide for the medical inspection of the children; they were also *empowered* to make arrangements for attending to health and physical condition—that is, for giving medical treatment. They were thus obliged to provide inspection, but the provision of medical treatment was optional. By the Act of 1918 the latter becomes obligatory. The duties and powers of Elementary Education Authorities prior to the Act of 1918 with regard to medical inspection and treatment are under the Act extended to Local Education Authorities controlling education other than Elementary. Thus medical inspection of Secondary and Continuation Schools becomes obligatory, medical treatment optional. These powers may be exercised by Local Education Authorities with respect to "children and young persons attending any school or educational institution, whether aided by them or not, if so requested by or on behalf of the persons having the management thereof."[1] "By this Section it becomes possible for the whole of the children and young persons in the country, no matter what kind of school or educational institution they may attend, to be

[1] Education Act of 1918.

brought under the provisions for the medical inspection and treatment of children and young persons attending schools provided by the Local Education Authority."[1]

It also becomes obligatory for each Local Education Authority to ascertain what children are physically defective or epileptic, and to make provision for them similar to that made for mentally defective children under the Elementary Education (Defective and Epileptic Children) Act of 1914.

It is impossible in a short survey of the Act to do more than barely mention the chief changes it introduces, and we shall have to be content to finish our summary by alluding to three other features which may in the future lead to very important developments.

Paragraph 23 states that "with a view to promoting the efficiency of teaching and advanced study, a Local Education Authority, for the purposes of Part II. of the Education Act, 1902, may aid teachers and students to carry on any investigation for the advancement of learning or research in or in connection with an educational institution, and with that object may aid educational institutions." Such a provision may have as one of its most important results the establishment of schools for carrying on research work in pedagogy as distinct from psychology.

Local Education Authorities under the Act of 1902 had powers conferred upon them "to provide or assist in providing scholarships for, and to pay or assist in paying the fees of, students ordinarily resident in the area of the council at schools or colleges or hostels within or without that area." Under the Act of 1918 these powers are extended, and include a power to provide allowances for maintenance. Thus no poor child will find his future handicapped by the inability of his parents to maintain

[1] "The Education Act—with Notes," p. 70. Published by the National Society.

him at a Secondary School to which he has won a scholarship.

Finally, it becomes obligatory for persons responsible for schools and institutions not in receipt of grants from the Board of Education to furnish to the Board the name, address, and a short description of the institutions in a prescribed form, and any other particulars which may be prescribed by regulations. This will provide a national register of all schools and educational institutions, which may in time play a part with regard to education similar to that which the registration of the population played with regard to the war—that, namely, of calling upon some or all of such educational institutions to undertake some definite function in the education of the people.

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